

LIPPINCOTT'S
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EDITED BY
MARTIN G. BRUMBAUGH, A.M., PH.D.

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EDITED BY

MARTIN G. BRUMBAUGH, A.M., PH.D., LL.D.

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA



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ANNALS OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS

IN 1910

A REPORT UPON CURRENT EDUCATIONAL
ACTIVITIES THROUGHOUT THE WORLD

BY

JOHN PALMER GARBER, PH.D.

ASSOCIATE SUPERINTENDENT OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF PHILADELPHIA

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EDITOR'S PREFACE

THE educational developments of the past year surpass in significance those of any preceding year. This is due in part to the conviction constantly growing that education is a vastly more important social function than people have heretofore realized. Boards of Education, private philanthropy, State legislatures and national administrations everywhere are coming to realize with increasing clearness that the progress of our civilization, the welfare of the individual and the general good of society are alike contingent upon the type of education and the scope of education imparted to the children in the schools.

The recognition of this fact has led to increasing activity on the part of all school officials, and also on the part of private initiative in working out forms of education which may be regarded as more nearly consistent with and adequate to the welfare of society than the forms heretofore accepted and followed.

Much of this activity is, of course, ephemeral. Some of it is necessarily unwise. Much of it bears the promise of help to childhood. To interpret all these educational activities wisely requires an understanding of the entire philosophy of education. In the absence of such comprehension of what education is there can be no adequate basis of adjustment of new educational movements until they are accepted and practised, nor can there be any wise interpretation of the meaning and the worth of these newer educational movements.

There is, therefore, a twofold problem before the educators of to-day: first, the problem of discovering just what movements are receiving unusual attention throughout the civilized world; and second, what mean-

ing shall be attached to these movements when once they are clearly apprehended. It is of the utmost importance that those who have to do with the administration of school affairs or with the teaching of children should be able at the least expenditure of effort to have a survey of present educational conditions throughout the world. To know the present status of education is to safeguard individual administrators or teachers from following false leads, and to direct them to the sources of approved and tested progress.

Such a volume is here presented. It aims to unfold in concise form a picture of present-day conditions in the educational world. In doing this it is necessarily proper that emphasis should be placed upon those things which by reason of their inherent value or their wide consideration are seriously challenging the attention of thoughtful people. Moreover, it seems wise that where a particular educational movement has leaped to the front and challenged the attention of the world of thinkers that that particular movement should be reported at length and discussed somewhat in detail.

The reader will find here just such an emphasis placed upon the general subject of "Vocational Education." This movement has demanded and received the most careful consideration accorded any problem in current education. To understand this movement both in its genesis and in its unfolding is of the utmost importance to any one who wishes to understand what is perhaps the most significant educational advance of the times. Other matters, which in the future may become dominant when once this important matter has been fairly well established, are also regarded with considerable emphasis and care; the purpose being to forewarn the mind of the thoughtful student of educational problems as to the things that are likely in the immediate future to command world-wide consideration. This gives vision and perspective to the school official.

To the average student of the school it is practically impossible to obtain a broad view of educational conditions throughout the world without some such volume as this. It is believed, therefore, that all teachers and school officials and friends of education will be able to obtain here with a minimum of effort such a comprehensive insight into present educational conditions as to enable them properly to appreciate the trend of current educational procedure, and with this understanding the more intelligently to promote the same. The volume is particularly valuable to teachers' reading circles and to the progressive teacher or citizen whose mind is alert to sense the trend of educational development.

There is, of course, no attempt to establish a system of educational thought, but to report with some degree of accuracy the dominant current forces in educational procedure. It is left for the individual studying the volume to interpret this procedure in the general scheme of education, and to estimate its value therein. It is, of course manifest that the author is constructively suggestive in his interpretation of educational forces in process. But he has not attempted to make educational activities prove any dogma or establish any theory of education. There is, and rightly so, an occasional hint given of the relative significance of these various movements, and the prediction made as to the probable permanent value of these movements in a general system of education. The thoughtful reader will remember that current problems are for the most part unsettled problems, that matters under discussion are matters not yet clearly established, and that there is a vast field of educational policy so generally accepted by the public mind as to make it unnecessary for its present agitation and exploitation. The reader will, therefore, bear in mind that there is no attempt here to exploit any part of the educational philosophy of the race save only that which

the race itself in its struggle for better things has seriously and broadly considered.

The author of this volume is conversant with the entire philosophy of education, and has had wide experience in the application of this theory to the practical problems arising in a great urban school system. He is, therefore, well prepared to view the educational progress of the year and report it in the light of sane educational theory. His treatment is not encyclopædic nor is it merely reportorial, it is in the truest sense interpretative, giving to the reader not only the facts of present-day education throughout the world, but an insight into the meaning of these facts as they relate themselves to the general philosophy of education, and as they interpret themselves in terms of practical procedure.

M. G. B.

JAN. 1, 1911

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ANNALS OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS

IN 1910

INTRODUCTION

19942

THE general purpose of these Annals is to furnish, at the close of each year, a succinct statement of its educational occurrences and movements; and to give as clear a view as possible of the trend and outlook of affairs affecting education, throughout the world, during the same period.

This is an ambitious program and one which it would be extremely difficult to carry out were it not for the fund of reliable information coming to be available for such a purpose. Much of this represents careful investigation, some of it needs comparatively little re-shaping for the purpose; so that the preparation of such annals represents largely the work of compilation, of catching the point of view, of summarizing, of organization.

Such a work, if well done, should be of service to all friends of education who have neither the time nor the opportunity to perform for themselves a similar service—for the busy professional man with his many imperative calls to service, for the man of business with his financial burdens and his relentless competition, for the artisan and laborer with their long and tiresome hours of industry, and for the mother whose never-ceasing household duties leave little time for broad research and extensive reading. To all these a yearly

message of the general lines of educational progress should prove a convenience, a means of information, and a source of inspiration. It should also suggest, stimulate, and help to direct into lines of fuller information and more helpful work and influence.

Human progress which is coming, as never before, to be world-wide in its influence, would also seem to demand such a periodical world-wide view of education, the most potent factor in human progress.

The comfort and rapidity of travel, the alertness and completeness of communication, and the cheapness of books, magazines, and daily information have enlarged the borders of knowledge and influence. Men are no longer content to sit within the circle of their immediate surroundings. Within the last decade, we all have become in a peculiar sense citizens of the world. Nowhere is this more noticeable than in education. It is not so long ago that education was self-centered in the community. The world was then far distant and its voice seldom heard. But education is an energetic, inquisitive force. As the opportunity came, in successive stages it extended its grasp of conditions and influences to the larger groups of the county, the state, and the nation. And now that interchange of thought and practice have become world-wide, education has become in a very true sense a world movement.

These are the justifications offered in behalf of these annual messages on educational progress.

The Year 1910 in Education

While the year heard an occasional self-answered inquiry on the well-worn subject, "What is Wrong with the Public Schools," there was much more evidence of constructive work. This work often, very properly, took the form of criticism, but there seemed to be a greater tendency than in the past to put all inquiry

into the form of getting at the facts, either for the purpose of building upon them, or, if necessary, of replacing them by more worthy things.

The higher institutions of learning have continued to attract a marked degree of attention. The criticism of the methods and dominating influence of our colleges and universities, which has gradually been reaching a climax, has been met by their presidents with the frankness and broad-mindedness that might be expected of the cultured men at the head of the great seats of learning. Such men as the newly elected President of Harvard, Doctor Wilson of Princeton,—now governor-elect of New Jersey,—Butler of Columbia, Schurman of Cornell, Hadley of Yale, Van Hise of Wisconsin, and Nichols of Dartmouth, have not only listened to these criticisms but, after careful analysis of the situation, have offered intelligent suggestions for its improvement.

President Hadley has given us a clearer vision of what constitutes the greatest value of a liberal education. While the strenuous conditions accompanying present and prospective commercial and industrial competition very naturally give a prominent interest to education along these lines, he points out that complete absorption in these things tends neither to the highest happiness nor to the greatest general prosperity. It is the old idea that for the fullest success one must first be a man; and this means a man with both broad and deep interests and appreciations.

President Lowell of Harvard has experimentally modified the free elective system of that institution on a plan similar to that in use in the University of Colorado, which permits students to elect a group of related subjects for intensive work, while at the same time it gives them a valuable insight into subjects of which every cultured man should have some knowledge. Dr. Wilson has corrected some misapprehensions of the preceptorial system at Princeton. He has especially emphasized

the fact that it is specifically a system of study rather than a system of recitation, and that while it is bringing teachers and students into a much more sympathetic relationship, it can never fully bridge the gulf between the ideals of the mature mind and the interests that most naturally appeal to early student-life.

Through an exceedingly frank and somewhat voluminous report made by the Carnegie Foundation, the medical schools of the United States have been brought into the limelight of public attention. The lax and sometimes questionable methods followed by some of these institutions have at various times in the past called for severe public criticism. But it remained for an entirely independent body, like the Carnegie Foundation, to take up a detailed and fearless investigation of the equipment and work of the individual medical schools. Although the report has stirred up a whirlwind of explanation and denial, and has greatly increased the protest against the so-called assumptions of authority of the Foundation, it unquestionably has aroused the public to the great need of more uniform standards and a higher excellence in these schools. Human life is so precious that it should be entrusted only to guaranteed knowledge and skill.

The investigations of such other independent bodies as the Sage Foundation and the Rockefeller Foundation have also helped to maintain keen interest in the entire problem of human development. The former has drawn especial attention to retardation and the backward pupil. The entire program of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, which met at Indianapolis in March, 1910, was devoted to consideration of the education of the exceptional child. The President of the meeting, Superintendent Stratton D. Brooks of Boston, had arranged, in the various meetings, for consideration of the differences of children in regard to environment, character,

and ability, with the purpose of evolving and emphasizing the best educational practice to meet their respective needs. While nothing very radical in the treatment of backwards, defectives, and truants has occurred during the year, decided general progress has been made. Probably the most notable feature of progress along these lines has been the strong tendency thoroughly to incorporate this work as a legitimate part of the work of the regular school. Superintendent Van Sickle, of Baltimore, has again emphasized his interest in the exceptionally bright pupil. According to his thought, these demand special consideration as well as those who are exceptional in other ways.

Industrial education has received during the year an increased amount of intelligent consideration. While many experiments are in actual process and are meeting with more or less success, the difficulties attending a practical and thorough solution of the problem are becoming more evident. A most promising development is the interest in the matter that is being manifested by general governments. The Canadian Government has recently appointed a commission for the study of the whole problem, and, in the United States, the Dolliver Bill for Federal aid to agricultural and other industrial education has been received with favor by the Senate. These movements are valuable in that they show a recognition of the importance of industrial training in its relation to the national welfare. For some years past, large industrial organizations here and there have recognized the commercial value of such training and have endeavored in a fragmentary way to furnish it to their more youthful employees. One of the recent bulletins of the National Bureau of Education shows what has been done by the great transportation companies along these lines.

The importance of good health as an individual and as a public asset is receiving more practical atten-

tion each year. A marked liberality in providing for sanitary school buildings, and for school-yards and public playgrounds adequate in size and equipment for the free play activities of the child, has been shown during the past year. Closely allied with these movements has been manifest a growing tendency to use the school-plant during other than regular school hours. The vast sums of public money expended upon modern school buildings demand that they be put to wider uses for the benefit of the community. This is bringing the school to the forefront as a center of social influence. At the same time it is greatly promoting favorable conditions for school work. As a meeting place for home and school and other neighborhood associations, for free lectures-courses, for the evening school and other systematic educational work, and as a place for play and entertainment as well as for work, large school buildings are rapidly forging ahead as great centers of physical, intellectual, and moral uplift in their respective communities.

The year has been an important one in administrative developments. A growing desire for larger administrative units, with officials clothed with adequate power, has been manifest both in legislation and in legislative investigation. Pennsylvania, through a school commission appointed by its Governor, Edwin T. Stuart, has presented a recodification and strengthening of its school laws, especially along the line of the organization and influence of a state board of education. In states where large and powerful universities have somewhat overshadowed the central department of educational control, these questions of a better organization and centralization of authority are urgently demanding consideration. That the work of these higher state institutions should be thoroughly coördinated with the general educational scheme is quite clearly demanded. Two notable events have made evident the benefits of such

coördination in New York and Massachusetts. In the former Commissioner Draper has been reëlected, notwithstanding past predictions in regard to his overthrow through the predominating influence of the Board of Regents. In the latter, a new and stronger work has received its inception through the election of Commissioner Snedden.

The National Bureau of Education has greatly strengthened its work by securing the coöperation of the Census Office in the preparation of its school statistics. It has established a department of school administration and has made a beginning in the organization of a field service for the investigation of live educational issues. The Bureau has also greatly gained in importance through a vigorous campaign which it has made for a more liberal appropriation for the extension of its work.

There are indications that there may be a readjustment of the time when the secondary phase of education shall begin. At present the line of demarcation between the elementary school and the higher school is the rather arbitrary one of years and of studies. The belief, that it should instead be one of function, is growing. Elementary education is concerned with essentials, with fundamentals, and during this time there should be no differentiation in work. During the next stage sufficient differentiation to afford an adequate basis for a wise choice of occupation should be begun. When it has been determined for what vocation the youth should prepare, then the higher education, or that beyond the secondary, should be taken up.

The dark shadows of great commercial crimes and of malfeasance in positions of public trust still remind us of the supreme importance of the moral problem in our school work. Severe as is becoming the industrial competition, it is a question whether, as a nation, our need of greater moral strength and vigor in the home

and in the State is not, after all, a more pressing one than our need of material prosperity. Especially does this appear as we remember that all true prosperity must be built on a foundation of business confidence as well as on both public and private trustworthiness.

The year has been noted for great religious gatherings, all of which have been remarkable for the deep earnestness and broad-minded feeling with which spiritual things have been considered. Matters which of old were causes of bitter controversy were supplanted by words and actions which evidence the presence of a sense of duty and of the need of activity in the diviner things of life. These meetings were of an international character, and while some of them were denominational, most of them had representatives from almost all creeds; thus illustrating the marvellous growth of liberality and a common drawing together on the essentials of religious life.

The great demand for more and better trained workmen than the market can supply and the question of whether the schools cannot to advantage follow a course of training which will fit young people more directly to be of immediate service to manufacturers and business men and for their duties in the home have kept the subject of vocational training in the foreground of educational thought and effort. Although no entirely satisfactory scheme has yet been worked out, much progress has been made in getting at the facts and conditions involved. There is also little doubt that much that has already been accomplished in an experimental way will enter into the more permanent program which is gradually being evolved. Because of the importance of the subject and the consideration which it is everywhere receiving, a fuller treatment is accorded to it than is given to any other subject in the following pages.

PART I

CHAPTER I

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The Present Status of the Problem

THE problem of Vocational Education, especially as it pertains to training for the industries, still remains the most prominent topic before the educational world. A great deal has been written upon the subject, and it has been discussed in almost every prominent educational meeting held within the United States during the last ten years. So desirable, and even necessary, has vocational training appeared to be that there is now scarcely a school system in the country that has not introduced it in some one of its forms. A number of noteworthy experiments in the work are being made on a somewhat complete scale and yet all are admittedly still in the experimental stage. While decided progress has been made and there is still everywhere an intense interest in the subject, no well-coördinated and entirely satisfactory scheme of vocational education has yet been evolved. This is partly due to the fact that the place of this newer idea in education is not easily grasped and appreciated by the existing educational thought, the result of centuries of development, and partly because of the diverse points of view of those most directly and vitally interested in the subject.

Then, too, the subject matter of vocational work does not yield readily to grouping and coördination. From the industrial side alone the United States Census lists several hundred more or less distinct occupations;

so that he who attempts to organize an industrial program has to face not one need, but many diverse needs. The expense of equipment and maintenance for the work, especially with older pupils who are taking specific work, is also far greater than for the ordinary schooling. Nor are the pedagogy and administration of the subject as yet well worked out. There is also a lack of proper text-books as a guide for the teaching of the subject. Probably the greatest existing defect in the work, however, is the disconnected, uncorrelated, and therefore pedagogically wasteful, way in which it is carried on even in some of our most complete vocational systems. The work lacks system and unity. It is difficult to understand why the work of the Trade School should bear so little relation to that of the manual training high school, and it (the manual training high school) less relation to that of the elementary manual training work; while the kindergarten occupations, which for years have stood for that which is at least pedagogically and logically complete, are entirely ignored by all.

The words of Superintendent Carroll G. Pearse of Milwaukee, in his recent annual report, indicate a condition which is quite general in vocational education throughout the country. He says that while

Lack of
Unity the industrial effort in his own schools has been increasing by leaps and bounds, the hand and industrial work of the pupils lacks unity—"there has been no common purpose in it. The manual work in the kindergarten has stood by itself; the industrial work in the elementary schools through the sixth grade has constituted one part; the work in domestic science for the girls in the upper grammar grades has formed another part; while the work in joinery for the boys in the upper grammar grades has been a separate part. The work in each of the high schools is different from the work in each of the other high schools, both in the nature and

the order of the exercises undertaken. The work in the Trade School for boys is entirely distinct from any work in the system, and the work of the Trade School for girls will be still different." It is quite evident that this condition is both uneconomical and confusing. We have already suffered sufficient loss of time and interest through such loosely organized work along other lines, and through the even more wasteful methods which present every new subject as if it bore no relation whatever to things already known. The framework of knowledge and training must be fitly joined together and the superstructure be of harmonious material if they are to furnish an efficient dwelling place for fiber and energy in the struggle with the possibilities of life.

The three classes of people who are most interested in the problem of vocational education and who are doing the most to keep it before the public attention are (1) the manufacturers and the dealers, who are most deeply interested in the trade or commercial side of the work; (2) the people actively employed in the industries, whose opinions and desires are made known through the various labor organizations; and (3) the educators, whose part it is to organize and carry on the great work of the schools.

Three
Classes
Interested

The commercial man naturally thinks that only direct and practical results are of any great value; the wage-earner naturally fears every movement that might introduce a wage-breaking element into his work; and the educator is more or less trammelled by the traditions and practices of years of only a general scholastic kind of education, so that it is not easy for him to grasp the merits and requirements of a more directly practical course. The manufacturers and the laborers have also for years been in a somewhat bitter antagonism and are apt each to regard with suspicion the interest of the other in the vocational work of the school, especially in that specific phase of it known as "industrial training."

A further complication arises from the fact that when the manufacturer and the laborer speak of vocational education they are thinking of it as it relates to youths of sixteen or over, the age at which young people become of real service in the industrial world; while, when the educator speaks of it, he is far more apt to be thinking of much younger children, for he knows full well that the important periods of child-life precede the age of sixteen. A loose application of the terms "manual training," "vocational education," and "industrial training" is also productive of misunderstanding. This is especially true when friction with labor organizations arises through a careless use of the term "industrial training" when general, rather than specific, vocational education is being advocated. But it is also true when the term "manual training" is made to include more than the school work that is intended merely to emphasize and develop skill of hand. Valuable as has been the manual training movement in this and other countries, it would seem to be a mistake, now that the psychology on which the manual training school was founded is being discredited and the new demand for a more specific preparation for life has come in, to endeavor to give it a vocational trend and still continue its name. If the manual training high school were to endeavor to perform the task of giving a general vocational or industrial training, it should modify both its course and its name; if it were to assume the task of specific industrial training, it would need to make even more marked changes in both. Up to this time, however, the tendency in these schools has been to emphasize the academic part of their work, and they are occupying a place intermediate between the vocational and the classical high school.

There are several promising features in the development of vocational education. One of these is the evidence that the varying interests are coming together, at

least upon some of the more important things. They already thoroughly agree on at least three important points: (1) that vocational training must be made part of the public school work; (2) that the work must be begun before the compulsory attendance laws permit the withdrawal of the child from school; and (3) that a certain amount of intellectual training must accompany the vocational work. The first recognizes the fact that private enterprises, when they undertake the vocational training of their employees, find it to their interest to make it intense and along the narrow lines of their own industry. It also recognizes that the school is the only social institution in which the conditions are completely under public control, while at the same time it pays tribute to the school as an efficient agent in formal instruction. The second was forcibly emphasized by the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial and Technical Education in their recent report, which shows that the boy or girl of fourteen who is taken out of school is not physically well enough developed to be desired in the skilled industries and, if without any previous vocational training, is doomed to a life of unskilled labor with its meager returns and comparatively hopeless outlook. The third is evidence that making a man merely a machinist is coming to be regarded as insufficient; he must be made an intelligent machinist. Industrial intelligence, not mere skill, is now more and more desired. Besides, knowledge of the industrial processes and materials, together with well-organized experiences with them, are proving themselves to be a most valuable basis of interest and training in the general school work.

Promising
Features

A second hopeful sign is the general public approval of the work, even with all its imperfections, wherever it has been tried with any degree of wisdom and interest. And it can be affirmed with confidence that this is not because of its novelty but because it meets a real need

in education. Especially promising results are shown in the general vocational interest in agriculture in the West and in the South; in the industrial training given to negroes; and in the manual training and vocational efforts with abnormals, both children and adults.

A third promising feature is the intense and persistent interest in the subject. Probably no other new idea in education has ever met with such rapid and general approval nor appealed so strongly to liberal financial support. Notwithstanding the great increase in expense involved in satisfactory equipments for vocational work, tax-payers seem to be accepting it as a good investment of the public money. By far the greatest open opposition is coming from educators who regard their ideas and ideals as under attack by this new educational movement. They are being forced to a clearer realization and statement of their beliefs, as well as to a franker knowledge of the merits and demerits of their work, than has ever before occurred. And it is not unlikely that the American people, with their usual ultimate good judgment, will demand an amalgamation of the good features of the old with the most desirable things of the new, and that in democratic America will be evolved the greatest educational system the world has ever known. The almost pathetic belief in the virtue of the public schools that exists among the masses; their willingness to sacrifice in order to secure the advantages of education for their children; and the marvelous growth in understanding and appreciation of the practices and aims of the school, all seem to forecast this. And this notwithstanding the destructive criticism of the public school that has appeared from time to time within recent years. As a people we are determined in this matter of education. And the form of education adopted must be to us ideal; for no practical people are more nearly controlled by their ideals. Whatever the source of our ideals we modify them, adapt them, and make them our

own. We are doing this in our political ideals, for we are a self-governing people; we shall also do it in education, for we are a self-educating people.

The Demand for Vocational Education

The demand for vocational education is but one phase of a remarkable development which is going on in all of the highly civilized countries of the world. We are living in a period of great social change, and eventually every social change affects the life of the child. In order to understand the relation of this new vocational problem to our old ideas of education, it will be necessary to get a general view of the social changes that have affected education, whether these changes have already occurred or whether they are in progress.

As the scholarly Secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, George H. Martin, has so clearly pointed out, education now has two general purposes: (a) to get children ready to go successfully alone—this is the parents' view and the parents' chief concern, and (b) to prepare children to do the world's work and to meet the world's competition—this is the view of the merchant, the manufacturer, and is coming to be the view of labor organizations. To this should be added (c) it must furnish a broad and safe ground on which to build our social and political institutions—this is the view of the statesman, the socialist, and the moralist; and (d) it must develop a firm foundation for healthful and happy living, both in individual life and in society. But these were not the ultimate purposes for which schools were originally founded. For people have reasoned that underneath all forms of productive labor and as a foundation for all development, success and happiness, must be intelligence; and that any form of special intelligence which is intended to develop skill or to prove a perma-

Develop-
ments in
Educational
Ideals

nent source of pleasure, must, to be effective, be rooted in trained powers of the mind. This set high above everything else strength of memory, keenness of observation, power in reasoning, habits of study, habits of right thoughts and desires, and a breadth of view which finds its solution of the daily problems in a wisdom drawn from knowledge which is wider than our own experience could possibly supply. As Mr. Martin says, this led to the putting into the elementary school of such universal tools of life as language (including reading and spelling), numbers, and drawing, and soon added geography and history, the former to open the door into the world of facts and experiences of the present, and the latter to give an insight into the world of facts and experiences of the past. Later on, when there arose a strong appreciation of the value of the body as the servant of the mind, a general knowledge of the parts of the body, with their functions, was introduced, together with ideas of how to make and keep the body strong and healthy.

Being satisfied that this elementary program contained the essential elements of a most effective training, the people decided to widen the scope of training by opening to those who would continue at school an opportunity for a more complete range of knowledge and a fuller development of mental power. So, higher institutions of learning, with a constantly growing determination to make them accessible to the deserving, were established. And into these higher institutions was introduced a wider study of language, which brought the student into touch with the origins of our Western civilization and greatly enhanced his knowledge of the past; a broader and deeper dealing with number, which greatly increased his ability to measure and to estimate; and the study of the sciences, which has made possible our marvelous modern social and industrial progress. Slight additions to these programs have been made from time to time, with the purpose of adding to the

knowledge and the integrity of the pupil. But in the main, with a varying interpretation and emphasis, for more than two centuries such education has been regarded as being the best adapted to make children self-dependent and fully able to do the work of the world and to live healthfully and happily while doing it. Such education has also been lauded as the most stable foundation on which to build our social and political safety and success. Hence, to secure its benefits, parents have made great sacrifices and have willingly yielded to burdensome taxation. The State has also manifested its confidence in such a scheme of education by broad and liberal support. And to the furtherance of this educational ideal, scholarly men everywhere have given their philosophy and their best efforts.

But a new element was introduced into our social life when steam was discovered; and its influence has, within very recent years, been accelerated in a remarkable way by the varied and wonder-
The New
Element in
Education
ful applications of electricity in our modern

life. The discovery of the power of steam has substituted the work of a machine for the labor of a man; it has gradually led away from skilled labor in the home to industry in the factory; it has supplanted knowledge of complete processes with skill only in divided and subdivided processes; and, with the introduction of steam, came also the finding of occupations for women outside of the home. These changes have not only greatly affected the nature and methods of industry, but have also greatly complicated the problems of the home and the school. As these changes have developed, there has come a growth of interest and competition in industry that has made its products and processes appear to be of paramount importance.

The day of small industries when the producer worked at his own bench, marketed his own wares, and personally instructed the apprentice who was to assist

and later on to take his place, has passed away. Competition has cut down the margin of profit to a point where quantity must make good the returns upon the capital invested. Quantity has centralized both capital and population to an extent that has given rise to new and serious problems. And the proper management of great municipalities has been rendered more difficult by the heavy tide of foreign immigration, upwards of a million a year, who, with all their ignorance of our language and still grosser ignorance of our institutions, are to be enlightened and amalgamated.

With the development of great industries has come the capitalist and great wealth. Wealth is freeing an increasingly great number of persons from the necessity of toil, with a tendency for them to set up standards which threaten the industry and thrift of our people and which create a widespread desire for gain without serious effort. Undue importance is also attached to riches and an entirely unwarranted place and influence accorded to the rich man. This is a far remove from the days when a more simple life and a more excellent standard of worth prevailed. The presence of great wealth in a community is a menace to simplicity and just estimates, especially when it is accorded high standing regardless of its other qualities. The rapid increase of millionaires and multi-millionaires is one of the phenomena of the great industrial prosperity of the day, and when these classes stand for elaborate display, for elegance in living, and for mere personal comfort and pleasure, the problem of inculcating the virtues of thrift, industry, simplicity, and purity of life is rendered exceedingly difficult. Worthy occupation is both an economic and a moral safeguard. A pleasure-seeking leisure class is a public menace. Rome learned this to her cost. And it is a question whether we have not reached a stage where we need many things that are far more important than material prosperity.

Effects of
Wealth

One of the remarkable changes of our day is the loss of prestige of the clergy. The church no longer speaks with the authority it did a century ago; in fact there is a strong tendency to question all authority. This new-born spirit of independence is not without its serious menace to the obedience which is fundamental in all government, whether it be of the Church, the State, the School, or the Home. This lack of respect for authority is accompanied by an impatience under restraint which makes it difficult to develop desirable self-control. With lack of self-control and little reverence for outside authority the life is swayed by the fitful moods and changing interests of the moment. And, naturally, serious complaints come from all sources that learners and employees have little respect either for the opportunities or the responsibilities that go with their positions in life. Teachers complain of a lack of earnestness of purpose in their students; employers complain not so much that their employees do not know, but that they do not care. If the school can put back purpose, zeal, and reverence into the young life, it will have accomplished a great work.

Spirit of
Independ-
ence

The most cogent force in bringing about our changed conditions is no doubt the development of science. We are living in a scientific age. Science has made possible most of our great improvements in industry and in society. Especially has it emphasized such ideas as conservation, the elimination of waste, the value of by-products, and the effects of organization.

Influence
of Science

In industry there has come to be expert investigation and expert advice in order to secure "maximum efficiency." This is always done with the relentlessness characteristic of science. Much of the criticism of the Public School has been in line with this effort to secure highest efficiency. That some of it should appear to be severe is natural. The time and opportunity of the child

form the most valuable resource of the nation. They must be conserved to meet the needs of the State. As the State is organized political society, it exists only for the welfare of its people; hence, the child is to be educated in a way that conserves the highest welfare of society. But the child, as an individual, has possibilities that may not be taken away even though society may not choose to develop them. Heretofore our scheme of education has been based upon the idea that these possibilities are mental, that psychology could reveal them to us, and as it did so our duty was to cultivate them. But our pedagogy as well as our ideas and conditions are changing. The tendency is now more and more towards a social basis for education. On this basis there are possibilities of the child that it would be social waste to cultivate; but these are not the possibilities that contribute to the usefulness and the happiness of the child in society. Industry claims that it controls our social good and that therefore there is waste in an education which does not lead directly to a vocation.

Thus arise two general educational ideals—(1) that the schools shall so emphasize industrial training that the world may be furnished an increased number of skilled workers who are at once prepared to take up special work, and this with little regard to their general training or education, except as these increase industrial efficiency and the control of conditions; (2) that the public money shall be used to educate efficient workers who are also prepared to live with their fellows as intelligent and loyal citizens, and who have the culture which enables them to enjoy the wonderful, the beautiful, and the good. The first is narrow and is for industrial efficiency alone. The second also aims for efficiency but it is an efficiency that is based upon intelligence and the developing power of a larger and a better outlook upon life. The second should have the approval of social science because it more fully conserves the inalienable possibilities of the child.

Any general survey of the changes occurring in our modern society would be incomplete which did not especially consider the rebirth and extension of the spirit of democracy that are so rapidly going on. When the success of the Revolution freed us from Great Britain, a few of the leaders recognized the principles which should dominate a free people. That such knowledge was not general, however, is evident from the interpretation placed upon the Constitution by these leaders—an interpretation which showed their distrust of the ability of the people intelligently to govern themselves. The revolt of the Anti-Federalists against this idea led to the adoption of a number of "Bill of Rights," which in the way they came to be interpreted later on demonstrated the truth of the convictions of these early leaders. But we have made vast progress since then.

Spirit of
Democracy

The opening of the region west of the Alleghenies brought together men of all ranks on an equal footing, and served as an excellent school for a true democracy. The fully democratic and liberal constitutions adopted in these regions compelled the older States to liberalize their constitutions. The great natural resources and wonderful opportunities of the developing nation also gave an exceptional opportunity to the masses. Material prosperity came to all classes; free education had a wonderful growth and extension. Then came the marvelous developments in the various agencies for easy communication which, in these later years, have made known the achievements of progressive people everywhere and which have given a new impetus to industry and a new hope to democracy. And with this has come an almost feverish desire for social progress. In a political way, this is finding its expression in an increased interest in the theory and practice of government; in a civil way, in a demand for exact justice; and in a material way, in a demand for equal opportunity for all in making preparation for life's work.

The school may no longer lead more directly towards the professions than towards the industries; for nine out of every ten of its pupils will in all probability have to work with their hands. Our greatest problem in education then is what to do with the boy and girl who shall have to earn their living by the sweat of the brow. And while general intelligence is extremely valuable in industry, it is not sufficient. During the development of our large industries, the school and the shop have worked practically independent of each other. This may no longer be; for equality of opportunity, in so far as it can be provided, demands specific skill as well as general intelligence. This must be a public provision, at least to the extent of developing skill that will be fundamental to the vocations, just as knowledge that has been fundamental to the professions has heretofore been provided. But specific skill and general intelligence are insufficient. For progressive, healthy life to-day, there must also be specific intelligence. And this intelligence will have to be developed along the two lines covering man's total environment: knowledge of physical laws and conditions, and an active familiarity with social needs and conditions. The former is needed to make nature man's servant instead of his master; the latter, to enable man to live rightly with his fellows. All of these are needed in the training which is to meet the new and changed conditions.

Many of these changes of mental and moral attitude are easily accounted for. The material changes have surrounded child-life with new and different conditions.

Urban Life The gathering out of the rural districts into city life has deprived the child of two things on which alone it truly thrives—work and play; factory life and leisure in the home have largely done away with domestic training for the girl and with helpful usefulness in the home for the boy; the big industrial plant, under the compelling force of competition and the divi-

sion of labor, has neither time nor place for perfect apprenticeship; the foreign increment to be instructed into good citizenship—all of these things have introduced new elements into the problem of the school. Clearly education for intelligence alone is no longer sufficient. Add to these the fact that the great mass of the children go out from the school with an incomplete education as soon as compulsory attendance laws permit; that not being wanted in the industries before sixteen, they then spend two years in haphazard unskilled employment—much of it in idleness; and that the school has had little thought of the world of work, and it should then be clear that we are under the necessity of making some changes in our system of education.

This, as Mr. Martin says, is not because our philosophy of education is false; it is because it is incomplete. Not because the practice of the schools is wrong; it is only inadequate. The public must furnish the means for making good what has been lost in our changing conditions; the idea of personal culture now needs to be reinforced by the idea of efficiency. The public must build up schools that not only promote intelligence but also train for the life-work. To fulfill their best mission, these schools must not so much create scholars and build up industrial workers as they must develop useful wisdom and promote industrial efficiency.

Vocational Training and the Problems of the School

But in order to accomplish these most desirable things we must hold our boys and girls in school until they are more nearly educated. Their own interests and the social welfare both demand this. Vast numbers of pupils leave before they get to the high school; many of them before they complete the grades. The causes of early withdrawal from school are found in (a) the stress of home circumstances; (b) inability

Leaving
School

ity or lack of purpose to cope with the course of study;
 (c) the inadequate appeal of the work of the school as worth while in meeting the practical requirements of life;
 (d) the indifferent support of weak and short-sighted parents.

Our greatest problem in education is not merely what to do for the great army of young people who shall have to earn their living, but how to keep them in school until the work of educating them is well done. The majority of the laboring class are poor and it is always a serious problem for them, especially where the families are large or where the income of the family is inadequate, to keep their children in school. Obligatory attendance is often in this respect the cause of actual distress. The consensus of opinion is that formal schooling should be continued beyond the age of fourteen, and yet this would only tend to augment the burdens of many homes; hence, some means must be found to permit youths to continue at school while at the same time giving them

Support
while in
School

the opportunity to help in the breadwinning for the family. Germany, Switzerland, and some other European countries have endeavored to solve the problem through schools whose programs provide for paid work in the counting-house or shop while theoretical work is being continued in the school. The obligation for seeing that the pupil gives to the school its part of his time rests in each case upon the employer of such labor. Such a plan is easily managed under certain types of government; but in the United States, where industrial plants are independent of direct government control, it is not so easily done. However, in several instances, notably in Cincinnati and Fitchburg, Massachusetts, large industrial plants are loyally and successfully assisting the school in this respect. The extreme subdivision of labor makes the proper adjustment and control of such coöperative work difficult; and whether it will reach a solution which

is not largely controlled by mere sentiment remains to be seen.

A second effort to meet the pecuniary needs of the family is being tried along the lines of permitting the pupil to sell his industrial product. In this case the industrial work of the pupil in the school is done upon salable things. This is a more expensive proposition for the school because it requires the equipment of a workshop rather than that of a school. In Boston and several other places, boxes and other articles needed by the supply department of the schools are being furnished in this way.

A third method of meeting this serious problem has been the evening school. This, after a number of years of experiment, has proved unsatisfactory for the educationally-needy period immediately following the age of fourteen. Adolescents who are employed during the day are physically unable to do satisfactory school-work in the evening. Both nature and their own inclinations protest vigorously against it.

How the problem shall be solved remains to be seen. Unquestionably something practical and worth while will have to be done for the "waste years" between fourteen and sixteen which, though of so little economic value, are of such great educational portent.

That there are many pupils in the school who do not "find themselves," either in ability or in interest, in the abstract phases of study, is evident. Manual training has proved a more or less effective specific for this sort of school-ailment. Doctor David Snedden summarizes its benefits by saying that it was "primarily intended to give breadth of experience, to arouse and intensify interest, and to emphasize appreciation of desirable things through an appeal to the fundamental manual activities." Psychology has clearly demonstrated that there is no real education unless there is a vital interaction between the mind and its

Manual
Training

environment. And the actual handling and manipulation of concrete material has often laid a solid foundation for this vital interaction. The trouble has been that, just as in the case of the so-called "faculty-psychology," it has been assumed that, because the child has been profitably engaged and interested in one line of occupation, its interest and ability would be strengthened for all. There has also been a pitiful lack of organization and educating purpose in much of the work. That hand-work which is both logically and pedagogically arranged, and which is thoroughly coördinated with the abstract studies, can be made effective with the types of pupils under consideration is undoubted.

There are two fundamentally different ways of dealing with such pupils in their hand work. The Dewey school of thinkers would say that the interest manifested in the work is the important thing, and the skill and finish evident in the product, secondary.

Interest
versus
Product

The other school holds that care and accuracy and skill in manipulation are as necessary as interest. Regardless of these theories of relative values, modern tendencies seem to be answering the question for us. The skill, accuracy, and finish evident in a modern product adds materially to its market value. Hence, if there is to be attention paid to the vocational outcome of our school-work, from the very beginning, care, accuracy, and skill in the manual work should be sought for as well as interest; and this entirely aside from their value as habits of life. This, of course, necessitates due consideration both in the selection of material and operations, and in the allowances made for imperfections, according to the maturity of the child.

The school often fails to hold some of its most capable and energetic pupils. They hear the call of a more practical world, and the school loses its attraction for them. This is most apt to occur just after the period of adolescence when the rising tide of manhood floods the soul

with a desire to be doing a man's work. Unless the school is convincing in its evidence that it is doing the things of the outside world, these boys and girls are not now easily held. This is why vocational work in the school, which imitates what their elders are doing, even though in but an elementary way, is especially attractive at this period of life. Youth is satisfied if it is but making a beginning on the processes of life; but the work must be real, at least in process and result. Both parents and pupils are clinging more firmly to the school where they are convinced that its work introduces more effectively and more directly into the work of the world. This is the convincing argument of trade schools and business colleges.

Indifference and shortsightedness are hard to meet. Enlightenment is sometimes worth while with the latter; little but the law can reach the former. But to either class the concrete results of vocational work are more apt to appeal than anything else that the school can do. The neglect and mistaken ideas of parents, which encourage poor work and early withdrawal from school, are a fruitful source not only of ignorance and social inefficiency, but also of moral degradation and actual crime. Judge Lindsay of Denver confidently affirms that "a change in our educational system whereby our boys would be fitted more directly for industrial efficiency would do more to reduce crime in this country than all the juvenile courts we could establish." Hence, even if it possessed no other value, vocational work would be of great service in the educational process as an instrument of effective appeal to the interest of parents to hold their children in school for a more complete education; especially if it could at the same time afford an opportunity for necessary money-earning while an effective education is being gotten.

The Place of Vocational Training in Essential Education

The consensus of opinion seems to be inclining towards the following as essential to all before the school entirely releases them either to the general activities of life or to a more specific training for the world's occupations:

Essential
Education

- (a) Intelligence.
- (b) Instruction in the essentials of individual and public health.
- (c) Instruction as consumers concerning the more common materials and their uses.
- (d) Training of the hand in the use of tools and materials that are essential to good home life and to a sympathetic appreciation and understanding of industry in general.
- (e) Such knowledge of the various occupations as will enable a wise choice of vocation to be made.
- (f) Essential ideas of business and business relations.
- (g) Instruction and training for proper relations with one another as men and of the individual to society as a whole.

(a) Intelligence is fundamental to all progress. And this applies not merely to skill in the use of such universal tools of knowledge and skill as language, number, drawing and other skill of hand, but to the more important power and habit of mind which both grasp and vitalize knowledge and skill and make possible a constant enlargement of their benefits.

One of the most striking things in connection with modern production is the extent to which it has turned to practical use the advancing knowledge of science and mathematics. The manufacture of steel and the reduction of other metals, the refining of petroleum and the scores of values obtained from its by-products, and the improvements in the manufacture of paper and of leather, all show the great use to which chemistry has been put. Chemistry, combined with biology and botany, has revolutionized agriculture, and the great

engineering feats of modern days would be impossible without the advanced knowledge of both mathematics and science.

There are two distinct tendencies in industry. One is to supplant the skill and intelligence of the man by an imitation of these qualities in the machine, thus permitting low intelligence and small pay in the operation of the machine. The other is to set a high appreciation upon the intelligence that produces the machine or makes possible its effective use in productive industry; this applies also to processes and to operations that demand intelligence as well as skill. While one tendency is towards degrading man to a level below the machine, the other is to give him the nobler instincts of the creator of the machine. Vocational education is needed to check the former and to foster the latter tendency. But intelligence, especially scientific intelligence, is making possible other forms of progress. The annals of agriculture, of health, of education, of domestic life, of civil and political thought, of religion, all show its growing triumphs in driving away the effects of ignorance, injustice, and immoral life. No nation can afford to waste the talents and intelligence of its children, no matter how boundless its material resources nor how great its industrial development. The movement in the direction of incorporating intelligence as an essential part of all vocational training is, therefore, of the greatest value.

(b) But a vigorous, well-trained body is also essential. Some one has gone to the trouble to estimate that an average of thirteen working days for each man, woman, and child of the United States is lost each year through sickness. And this takes no account of the days when the working vigor is lowered by colds, headaches, etc. The tremendous economic and social gain that would be effected through a large elimination of such illness, most of which modern science

Two Tendencies in Industry

Health

indicates to be avoidable, is easily seen. The increasing public interest in the enforcement of pure food laws, in the segregation of contagious disease, in the prevention of devastating maladies, and in a liberal giving of public funds to promote the public health, is a sign of the awakening of a valuable knowledge and sentiment in the direction of eliminating disease. To conserve the public health is certainly as important to us as a nation as to conserve our forests and our streams. And no one should go out from our schools who has not first been clearly and specifically instructed and trained into healthful habits for himself and into due regard for the health of his home, his workshop, and his community.

(c) There are few more serious drains upon the comfort and savings of the family than those caused by gross ignorance concerning common, every-day materials and their proper use. The selection and proper preparation of nutritious foods, with such knowledge of them as would enable proper substitution to be made when prices are high, would effect great savings in both health and money. There is a great variety from which to select, but, when knowledge in regard to foods is limited and everyone is on the market for the same things, prices are apt to be high. This and the determination to have only the choicest of the market have been given as the main causes of the great advance in the cost of living within recent months. Then, too, the injudicious choice and lack of intelligent care of clothing and furniture make a serious drain upon comfort, appearance, and thrift. In matters pertaining to all of these things we have yet much to learn from such nations as the French. Great gains in health, taste, comfort, and habits of economy and thrift can be made by the proper instruction of youth along these lines.

(d) The charge has been made that our public schools have had a tendency to create prejudice against manual

Wasteful-
ness

labor. Labor is the mainstay of the State. Most raw material has little value until it is transmuted by its touch. Vocational work in the school should dignify the laborer and his work. It is claimed that the introduction of vocational work before pupils leave school will also do much towards removing the friction between labor and capital. For it is said that working side by side in that entirely democratic place, the public school, the son of the capitalist and the son of the artisan will establish abiding sympathy and respect for each other. That an intelligent understanding and appreciation of industry, and what it stands for in our community and national life, will have such an effect is undoubtedly true.

Dignity of
Labor

But for the sake of the home alone there should be training for the boy in the use of such simple tools as the saw, the hatchet, and the plane upon wood; and of heat, hammer, and file upon the common metals. In this respect we shall have to hark back to the farm; for there helplessness and dependence upon outside help in easy tasks of mending are unknown. At present girls are drawn into factory life from untrained homes and, after a few years, often return to home life of their own utterly unprepared for its responsibilities and duties. This is an undermining of our home-life which the vocational school is expected to remedy. And the girl should not leave the doors of the vocational school until its work is well done. The mission of the home keeper should indeed be abroad in the land. The national life is nursed in the cradle of the home.

(e) The misfits in life are a fruitful source of discontent and of untold social and economic loss. There are ministers who should be business men and business men with instincts and ability for a broader leadership. It happens that the one in control could often be exchanged for the one controlled with great gain. Human nature seems to incline towards positions where

Misfits

success requires ability and effort greater than are at command. It also sometimes leads to our assuming qualities we do not possess. The school seems to be the place where the individual and his occupation in life should be brought face to face. After work is once begun, circumstances are apt to make it hard to change to a wiser choice; or, what is worse, the dissatisfied drift from one occupation to another not knowing where their best life-work is to be found. Clear ideas of at least the important occupations—the nature of the work, the preparation demanded, and the opportunities afforded by each, should stimulate and safely guide the inclination of pupils. Wise help from those watching the development of pupils would render this doubly safe. So important is a wise choice of occupation to society, as well as to the individual, that social guilds, which have for their specific purpose the finding out and assisting into right lines of work of all candidates, are springing up in all of our large cities. The best developed of these are the Vocation Bureau, under the control of the School Committee of Boston, and the Students' Aid Committee in connection with the High School Association of New York City.

Professor Münsterberg has written a thoughtful article on what psychology can do in the way of assistance in this work.¹ All agree that the choice of occupation should be made in a way and at a time that will permit change without loss if a mistake has been made, and this emphasizes the need for a general foundation in vocational view—a training and a testing—before the school and the pupil part. This, so far as the professions are concerned, has been done by the school and the schoolmaster in a spasmodic, unsystematized way for many years. It now must be done by them in a well-organized, well-administered manner for all occupations

¹ See McClure's for February, 1910.

—in a way that removes all idea of drudgery from the selected employment because it is adapted to inclination and capacity and is followed by choice. Work is a blessing; it is only drudgery that kills.

(f) No one can live in society without being brought into more or less vital relations with business and business forms; and whether these business relations shall mean a loss to the individual, or shall prove creditable to his intelligence and foresight, will depend almost entirely upon what is done for him before he leaves the school. In his book, "Working with the Hands," Booker T. Washington speaks of a young man in the South who could perform problems in bank discount but could not find out why his father lost money on every bale of cotton he raised. There are too many such persons. Few find any other means than costly experience of learning these badly needed lessons in business. They need to be only quite elementary but should at least inculcate the simpler elements of business knowledge and thrift. The well-worn tale about the professional man who, when asked to endorse his first check, in his perplexity wrote across its face "I endorse these sentiments" is a case in point. The perennial jokes about the doings of women in these respects emphasize the need of some business instruction. It would unquestionably render fraud more difficult and greatly contribute to our national thrift.

Business
Methods

(g) But life in society demands that which is more essential than all of these. It is true that there can be no progress without intelligence; that there can be only the work of weaklings with poor health; that serious waste and unnecessary poverty are inevitable unless we know more about the materials of every-day use; that there will be unsatisfactory home-life without knowledge and training in the more universal implements of industry; and that fraud and lack of thrift abound where there are poor ideas of business.

Social

But it is even more true that men cannot live in associated groups at all without some sense of obligation in their relations with one another. They must also fulfill their duties towards what is represented by the group. There thus arises for each person a twofold duty: (1) the duty towards other individuals; (2) the duty towards society. The individual duties are two-fold: (a) towards others; (b) towards ourselves. The essential nature of man's duty towards others is well expressed in the Golden Rule, and his duties to himself in Robert Louis Stevenson's terse phrase, "Help us to play the man." Man should be self-governing and self-supporting; he owes this to the State as well as to himself. Up to this time the School has done little towards training the masses for self-support. It has been placing its emphasis upon self-culture. The feeling is growing that the two combined would make a better man.

Service expresses man's whole duty in a single word. It also sums up the duty of all combinations and groups of men. Superintendent Martin G. Brumbaugh in a recent address tersely stated the duty of the social group known as the "School" in the sentence, "The public school system exists primarily to set in each individual the essential virtues of the State." And the State exists and thrives only so long as it truly serves. Employer and the employed must serve. Employers complain that youthful employees especially are unwilling to accept directions or to work in a subordinate place without losing ambition to do their best; that they are wasteful of material and take little account of any interests other than their own; that though they are paid for their time and effort they cannot be trusted to make a just return. Some one has said, "He that does not do more than for what he is paid, is paid for more than he does." Industry prospers only where there are right ideals and habits as well as intelligence and skill. This is a problem for both the Home and the School.

But he who would be an employer must also learn that he must not set the example of an unjust return by taking advantage of the weakness or ignorance of others either in his products or in his dealings. Greater responsibility goes with the greater place. The essential virtues are, if possible, of greater importance to the employer than to the employed. And the vocational work offers peculiar opportunities for the development of accuracy, industry, helpfulness, justice, and all the other qualities depending upon a sense of obligation to society and our fellow man.

The Organization of Vocational Work

With these general thoughts in mind, certain essentials in organization and administration are evident, especially in the specific part of education known as vocational training.

At present there are two general plans for the introduction of vocational education into the curriculum. One is to introduce no new subjects, but instead to give a vocational trend to all of the work; while the other plan recognizes the value of the intellectual work, it regards vocational training as of such great importance as to demand a modification not only of existing methods, but also of the curriculum itself. Superintendent Lorenzo D. Harvey, who has done so much towards solving the vocational problem in the schools of Menominee, Wisconsin, emphasized the latter view when he said: "The time has come for us to give to American children the kind of training that fits for life. It must not be said in this country again that the only opportunity an American boy has to learn a trade is to commit a crime and be sent to a reform school." Such nations as Germany, Switzerland, Sweden, and Belgium have also apparently fully decided the question for us by the way in which they are empha-

Plans for
Intro-
ducing

sizing the importance of the vocational idea in their courses of study and by the success they are meeting with in it.

There is now a pretty general consensus of opinion that the first six years of the elementary school life are needed for the acquisition of the fundamentals of intelligence—to lay the groundwork of knowledge and to acquire some facility in the use of the universal tools of expression and acquisition. While the main purpose during this period should be intellectual, all of the worthy powers, instincts, and interests of the child should be used in the work. This brings reinforcing and quickening agencies into the work. The older pedagogy aimed to develop the powers of the child and recognized the value of interest in its efforts, but it went to psychology for its information and guidance.

The newer instead recognizes the child as a social and biological, rather than a psychological being, and through its environment introduces a more natural appeal. Hence, without any thought of a coming vocation, it would still be well to educate through the hand and eye and not through the mind alone; through an appreciative introduction to the environment and not through the unreal world of books alone; through a nearby thinking and acting world of which the pupil is already a part, and not through an ideal world which he is to share when he leaves school. This gives meaning to the thinking, purpose to the remembering, motive to the doing.

It has introduced the new term "motivation" into education. It is vitalizing the elementary work as never before. As Horne in his *Philosophy of*
Motivation Education says: Many boys find themselves in wood and metal and clay when not in books, and the training of the hand thus secured is also a training of the brain and of the mind. Such boys are not necessarily "blockheads," but they need the hand train-

ing through constructive work to give meaning and life to the other work. Whether with these newer appeals this fundamental and exceedingly important elementary work can be done in six years remains to be seen. Many claim that the traditional eight years are none too many. It is certainly true that every one should have even more than these eight years in which to build up the intelligence and culture necessary to enable him to become all that our ideals of a man and creditable citizen call for.

These ideals now demand that the whole trend of education shall be towards efficiency. Intelligence and even culture are not sufficient; they must be at work in the interests of society and not merely be for the personal gratification of the individual. This makes good health, energy, skill, proper incentives, and intelligent coöperation matters of vital importance. And in order to incorporate these thoroughly into the life, their development must be begun during the early and impressionable years. Hence, while the more technical features of most kinds of vocational work cannot be introduced with any degree of economy much before the age of sixteen, the strong and sure foundations on which all vocational work must rest should be begun in the early school life. Beginning with the kindergarten, there should be well coördinated work which will build up, in connection with the growth in general intelligence, such a knowledge and interest in the occupations of life, as well as such ideals and skill, as will make for the efficiency and well-being of the individual and for the welfare of the community and country of which the individual is a part.

ESSENTIAL VARIETIES.—This introduces a variation of capacity in those to be educated, as well as a multiplication of special needs, which renders the organization of vocational work that will best meet all requirements quite difficult. One method of approach to

the problem is to divide the work according to its: (1) variation in kind; (2) the variation in the degree of maturity required; and (3) its variation in aim.

1. According to this scheme there are enough points of similarity in the materials used, the fundamental operations performed, and the products or results produced in the multitude of occupations followed in a highly civilized country for them to yield to grouping under the five general heads: Household occupations; Agricultural occupations; Commercial occupations; Industrial occupations; and Professional occupations. Even these five groups overlap in many of their interests in a way that encourages the kind of common instruction, at first, that will lay a broad basis for a better understanding and appreciation of the different occupations in their relations to one another.

2. The different stages of maturity of those under instruction demand important differences in the kind of work done and also in the methods pursued.

Varieties in Maturity A general subdivision would embrace the following: Elementary Work for the first six years; General or Intermediate Work for the next four years; the Regular or more Specific Vocational Work for the next two years. For those desiring to become leaders in industry there would then follow Technical Training for two years longer. This in case of the young man choosing a professional career would enable him to make use of the four years involved in the last two divisions. The Specific Vocational Work could be taken by those compelled to leave school at fourteen in Continuation Schools, which would provide short but highly specialized courses for them.

3. Because of these variations in maturity, there must also be a variation in the general purposes of the work. During the Elementary period, the vocational work should embrace hand training and the study of

industry largely for the purpose of furnishing an additional means of expression for the constructive instinct of the child, as well as to develop an intelligent knowledge of how men earn a living and carry on the work of the world. It should also familiarize it with the more common materials used in daily life and in the various occupations of life. During the General or Intermediate vocational period, there should be developed general skill in the operations which are more or less common to the more universal occupations. There should also be imparted such specific knowledge and understanding of occupations as will enable a wise choice of vocation to be made. During the Elementary and Intermediate vocational periods, there should be imparted a knowledge of the elementary forces and principles which contribute so wonderfully to man's power and comfort in the world.

Varieties in
Purpose

Care must be exercised in outlining courses of study for the lower vocational work, especially the elementary, not to be misled by what is done in the higher technical schools, where relatively more theory and far more technical operations are required. It is also quite evident that the pedagogy for this elementary work is at present less satisfactory than it is for the technical schools, where the problem has been more definitely worked out.

Many would deny the value of the general training of the Intermediate Vocational period. To seek for points of common training that will be valuable to every individual, no matter what the occupation that later on may be taken up, is to the minds of such an educational dream and entirely wasteful as a means of laying a foundation for specific skill. However, there are two ways of looking at the problem. One is from the viewpoint of the man who is intensely interested in a highly specialized product which he would see produced as cheaply and expeditiously as possible.

General
Vocational
Training

Another is from the viewpoint of the person who sees in individual efficiency and industrial adaptability a more valuable human product than he can see in a mere human machine, no matter how rapidly it works. The one is controlled by conditions; the other has conditions under its control.

The nature of occupations and the nature of youth both contribute to the reasonableness of this General Vocational work. While, in the entire United States, there are over a million persons engaged in the various forms of woodwork, all the specialized forms of this industry rest upon the use of a few hand and machine tools and upon a general knowledge and experience in the handling of very similar material in all. This is also true in the steel and iron industry; while the spinning and weaving involved in all textile industries make use of the same general knowledge and skill. The theoretical principles underlying the various subdivisions of industry are even more easily grouped. So far as the nature of youth is concerned, the problem presents even less difficulty, owing to the natural curiosity of the young to test various things. This is an instinct of youthful nature seeking to find that which appeals as a life-work. And obedience to nature would seem to indicate the desirability of helping youth in the search, by presenting this broader vocational work under the close observation of the teacher, whose superior intelligence and judgment should be of great assistance in the final choice of a vocation.

During the Regular Vocational period, which should not be begun before sixteen because industry has clearly demonstrated that the necessary maturity is not apt to be reached before that period, the main object should be specific skill and technical knowledge in the chosen vocation. This is the main stream towards which all of its tributaries have been converging. And specific skill and knowledge will be

Vocational
Skill

rapidly gained if the general preparatory work has been so mapped out and accomplished as to lead up to it. This specific work requires a period of at least two years, and the school should endeavor to hold on to all pupils until at least this much of a well-rounded education is completed. With this accomplished, our households, our shops, and our marts of trade and commerce would be filled with skilled people to an extent which would enable us fearlessly to meet the competition of the world. Combined, as it should be, with proper training in coöperative citizenship, it should guarantee the safety and highest welfare of our great Republic.

For those with both the ability and the desire, an opportunity for a further two years of distinctly Technical Training should be provided. This would be for the managers and leaders in industry. Those electing professional training or a liberal education would take up their work at the close of the General or Intermediate Vocational period and continue it for four years. President James H. Baker of the University of Colorado holds that, by a proper combination, from the beginning, of the work of general training with the work which aims eventually to secure specialized efficiency, at least two years can be saved in educating for a profession. He had particularly in mind a harmonized and unified effort to be applied by the college of liberal arts and the graduate and professional school; but precisely the same principle applies to the results of a well-coördinated system which, without break or loss of time, would lead the pupil from the kindergarten, through the schools, to his life occupation along any line.

We are said to be the only progressive nation that is taking no systematic interest in the child after it leaves school. In several countries the child is held for further schooling, after the regular obligatory period has passed, for a portion of its working hours; and the burden of seeing that it attends school during these hours is thrown

upon the employer. This further schooling is carried on in what have come to be called "continuation schools."¹

The place of the Manual Training High School in such a scheme of education would be, according to Doctor Snedden, intermediate between a liberal and a vocational education. The original idea was that manual

training, drawing, etc., would contribute to vocational efficiency. But schoolmasters and

educational administrators have been lauding the contribution of these things to a liberal education to such an extent that they have lost much of their vocational significance. It remains true, however, of the manual training high school, that the wide range of contact with tools and materials and the experience gained at bench-work and in the machine-shop are highly desirable. But such schools are rarely controlled by the vocational idea and even in the household arts are dominated by cultural tendencies rather than by household necessity. To meet more directly the life-demands Doctor Snedden claims that their work must be made more vital and that they must get rid of a discredited psychology which bases the course of training upon the two ideals: (1) that general training of the hand gives power and skill at once usable in any special direction; and (2) that type-studies and exercises form the proper method of approach to completed objects rather than the method which begins with the object itself because of the strength and unity of its appeal. To meet the rising tide of vocational interest, the advocates of the manual training idea in education must make greater use of fundamental instincts and interests.

THE SUBJECT-MATTER.—The subject-matter for vocational education is partly concrete, partly technical, and partly general; but vocational instruction should not at any time be made wholly any one of these. The

¹See Continuation Schools, Chapter IV.

guiding principle in the selection of vocational material should be its relation to the final economic and social efficiency of the pupil. The things which, under existing social conditions, most affect his daily life and the activity and relations which tend most effectively towards putting him in command of his best powers and possibilities should have precedence in the course of study.

Before making a choice of materials and operations, it is necessary to decide whether we shall be guided by the idea that the best results are secured by a multiplication of short and specific courses, which shall work directly towards a material increase of the number of skilled workmen ready to take their places at once in the ranks of productive industry, or whether we shall be guided by the idea that, in a democracy, the function of the public school is rather to educate for general industrial efficiency and for the best relations of the pupil towards his duties as an individual and as a citizen. If we are guided by the former idea, everything must, of necessity, be rejected which does not tend directly towards technical knowledge and specific skill. If guided by the latter, we must rely upon such a cultivation of intelligence and skill, in dealing with the things we select, as will tend to give the pupil, not immediate command of the more technical and specialized things, but exceptional readiness in learning the most important of them. The one tends towards quick and direct knowledge and skill because effort is confined within narrow grooves; the other tends towards intelligence, intellectual efficiency, and a broader adaptability because of a more extended, though equally intimate and direct, dealing with more fundamental things. The one makes use only of the highly specialized processes of the present; the other selects the more fundamental occupations and ideas out of which these have grown and dwells more fully upon the deeper essentials of human welfare and success.

General or
Specific?

This subject-matter should be modified somewhat to suit the locality, but in the main it may be organized under the headings: (a) Knowledge of materials; (b) Knowledge of environment; (c) Knowledge of industry; (d) Knowledge of men's relations to one another; and (e) Skill in operation.

(a) Knowledge of materials should include the great staples of life; the more important fruits and food products; such materials for clothing and household use as wool, cotton, silk, and flax; the more common metals; lumber; glass and earthenware. Instruction on these subjects should include: What they are; Where they are obtained; How they grow or are produced; How they are marketed; and A fair idea of their cost in care, in effort, and in money; the latter to be given for the special purpose of preventing a spirit of wastefulness.

(b) Knowledge of environment should include instruction upon: (1) Plant life that is in close relation to man—the conditions most favorable to the growth and reproduction of the most important plants—their use—the relation of insect life to them; (2) Animal life contributing to man's support, to his efforts, and to his comfort—conditions under which each thrives—their marketing and value; (3) Physics—elementary, to give ideas of the more common properties of matter—mechanical powers, mechanics of gases and liquids with experiments—heat and its effects, with the principles of the engine—sound—light—electricity and its applications—photography—and chemistry in its relations to industry. Care should be exercised in the instruction to develop careful observation, ability in imitation, and the power in initiative that tells so mightily in modern industry.

(c) Knowledge of industry should grow from general to very definite ideas of the most universal industries—how they are carried on—the proper preparation for each—the difficulties and dangers to be met or avoided

in each—the opportunities each affords for development—the rewards to be obtained from each. A most important part of this work is such a history of the development of the principal industries as will reveal many important ideas connected with the above outline and which will, as well, arouse an interest in the connection between this development and human progress.

There are two methods of approach in studying industry: one is the Neighborhood approach; the other is the Historical. In the Neighborhood approach, industries just as they are now carried on in the vicinity of the school are made the subject of study. Such a method has vitality and strength to the extent to which the development and specific knowledge of the pupil enable him to appreciate what he sees. The Historical approach is simpler; for it takes an industry in its primitive state and follows its development. This is more in accordance with the educational principle of “from the simple to the complex,” but it often lacks the human interest and appeal of the other. A combination of these methods is probably best.

(d) The general purpose of the study of men's vocational relations to one another is to promote the success and happiness both of the individual and of the social and economic groups. The ideas and practices developed should include: (1) The more common business forms, ideas, and relations; (2) The most important economic principles underlying the relations of employer and employed—personal relations, rights and duties of organizations of labor and capital, arbitration, a study of the main factors in the production of wealth (land, labor, and capital)—the economic relations of the community and the State to the individual; and (3) The significance and importance of the vocations which are most closely allied with man's health, protection, comfort, and development in the home, in the school, in the community, and in the State.

(e) Skill in operation is, to those who seek for the most direct results, by far the most important factor, and industrial operations would for them absorb practically the whole of the course of study. However, for those seeking for broader results, skill is merely coördinate with industrial intelligence and is really subordinate to other factors which are farther reaching in their significance. In a democracy the school should first of all seek to develop men and women; neglect of this aim has cost us more in the way of national well-being than any neglect of vocational aim could possibly do. But this furnishes no excuse to the school for neglecting vocational efficiency and no argument that manly and womanly qualities cannot be secured in conjunction with industrial intelligence and skill just as readily as they can be secured in conjunction with general intelligence alone. In fact, if our social psychology is correct, we should be able to secure the former more readily and effectively than the latter from the great mass of the pupils of the school.

Intermediate Vocational Training

The public schools are not regarded as places in which full trades should be taught nor would trades-unions be willing that they should turn into the field of industry a probably large number of full-fledged mechanics. But if these schools can so train their pupils as to shorten the usual four or five years, required by the learner who goes into a shop before full wages are received, to one or two years of actual apprenticeship, the economic gain will be immense. And this takes no account of the greater industrial intelligence and broader adaptability of the school-trained apprentices.

In arranging work to secure skill in operation, the large part that machinery plays in modern industry must

be kept in mind. Hence, both skill of hand and ability to use machines are to be developed. While the greatest need in the industrial life of the day is to fill the ranks with workmen possessing both skill and industrial intelligence, it should always be remembered in our instruction that the growing use of machinery is creating an ever-increasing demand for foremen. This holds out inducements for men who will raise themselves above the average in skill and industrial intelligence and who, in addition, manifest industrial initiative and ability in shop discipline and shop economics.

Owing to the relative importance of local conditions and the variation in need imposed by them, there would probably be little advantage in endeavoring to outline a detailed course in industrial operations that would be well adapted to all of our schools. However, if our premises are correct, it may be laid down as a safe principle that the vocational work of the school shall be centered about the occupations that have most to do with the essentials of human welfare and which, therefore, naturally employ the greatest mass of workmen. An additional reason for such a selection of occupations may be found in the fact that they embrace the operations from which all others have developed, and, therefore, a judicious selection of work from them can readily be adapted to a development of skill and knowledge that will be of tremendous service in any more specialized work which may be taken up later by the pupil. If this fundamental work is well done in the schooling which should be given to all before they are yielded to the actual employments of life, then it should also be entirely safe to leave the problem of more highly specialized work to the short actual apprenticeship and the briefer, more varied, and more intense courses of the continuation school or to the more advanced and more theoretical courses of the various technical and professional schools.

COURSE OF STUDY.—An outline for a course of study that has for its general purpose the development of skill in vocational and industrial pursuits, as well as the specific purpose of making direct preparation for the duties of life, would then embrace work chosen from the following:

(a) Vocations most intimately associated with providing protection for the body of the individual.

(b) Vocations that provide shelter and comfort for the family.

(c) Vocations most intimately associated with the raising of food products and the preparation of food for eating.

(d) Vocations most closely related to the health of the individual and to the health of the social group.

(e) Vocations most closely related to modern progress.

(f) Vocations meeting the most common human desires.

These all more or less overlap. In all, the making of an actual thing or of a model of the actual thing is to be the basis on which to build skill in the various operations involved in its making. This same idea should be carried out in all the processes and experiments involved in the vocational work. In each case a construction-drawing of the object to be made, or an outline of the aims and means of the process or of the experiment, should first be prepared by the pupil. Some of the work is adapted to girls alone, some to boys alone. However, in all but a few occupations, it is becoming more and more difficult each year to draw hard and fast lines of demarcation between the legitimate occupations of each sex.

In (a) are involved the operations which lead up to providing clothing for the body. The important operations connected with this provision are carding, spinning, weaving, garment making, shoe making, hat

making, and glove making. The work should begin with hand work and end with the ability to operate the various machines involved.

In (b) are found such occupations as tent making, house building, and house furnishing. These involve some of the former operations and, in addition, the work of the carpenter and later on that of the mason, the plasterer, the house painter, and the cabinet maker. Develop special skill in the use of the hammer, the saw, the plane, the rule, the square, the level, the brace and bit, the chisel and the lathe. Later on the operation of the machines which are now commonly used in working wood should be taught.

Connected with (c) are the occupations of the gardener, the farmer, and the fruit raiser, as well as those of the potter, the cook, the baker, the stove moulder, and the miller. Agriculture forms a topic of so much importance that it will be treated in a separate chapter. The operations growing out of the occupations of the blacksmith (who is most intimately associated with the farmer) are such as heating, hammering, bending, welding, filing, and chipping iron. Around the occupations of the potter center the molding in clay, of which children are so fond, the use of the potter's wheel, and the arts of design and decoration. The designs and arts of the moulder in iron are also to be included.

With (d) are associated such practices as ensure the cleanliness and health of the body, the care of infants, the sanitation of the home, and care for the public health. These involve such occupations as those of the plumber, the contractor, the food expert, and the physician.

The vocations most representative in (e) are the ones which noticeably conserve human comfort and convenience, as well as force and materials in general: The elements of applied electricity; the chemistry of every-day life—yeasts, soap, combustion, both slow as in rust and rapid as in fire; experiments with illuminants

and in testing the purity of foods, air, and water; care of fruit and shade trees; forestry; the use of water power.

In (f) are represented the problems involved in color schemes as well as such other æsthetic desires as are found in home decoration, color work in connection with drawing, landscape gardening, etc. Millinery, lacework and embroidery, which depend so largely upon æsthetic judgment, belong to this group.

Interesting vocational work is also found in making the apparatus for various amusements, and an abundance of it can always be found in pattern-making and wherever the desire to imitate and invent can find expression.

In connection with the making of objects and the carrying on of all processes, the proper care of tools, machinery, and material, and the giving of due consideration to beauty as well as to utility should be made a prominent part of the instruction.

Methods in Vocational Work

There are certain things which are fundamental in connection with the methods to be employed in vocational education. The general aim of the instructor should be to develop both knowledge and power, or, as the Germans state it, "Kennen und Können." To this might well be added things of such far-reaching import in all the vocations of life as maturity of judgment, a sense of obligation due to the position itself, a sense of fitness for the position, combined with a determination to succeed in it. More specifically these general aims may be classified as

General
Aims

(a) Mechanical—embracing knowledge of details, accuracy, skill or dexterity, speed or economy of time in operation.

(b) Ethical—including a desire for intelligence in the occupation, an accuracy and care that naturally lead

to truth and honesty in time and effort in the occupation, and the desire to be of service—the end of all education, the desire to serve the immediate neighbor and the desire to serve the more distant civic and social neighbor.

(c) Social—to be developed through group work upon the objects under construction or the processes being carried on, the purpose being to assist the pupil into an easy finding of a helpful place in coöperating with others. Vocational work should be so conducted as to lead to respect for all useful labor and to a feeling of the dignity and importance of contributing to the world's wealth and welfare. It should also develop the social strength and safety that come from having steady employment.

In all, the things made or the processes performed are to be the center of interest, of skill in the operations involved, and of the utility, the beauty, and the social value of the object or process.

(a) These objects and processes, being selected from the more primitive and basic vocations from which the highly specialized practices of modern industry have grown, should give a far-reaching mechanical adaptability and should be taught with this purpose in mind. Some of these basic vocations, such as the domestic occupations, carpentering, cabinet making, blacksmithing, the work of the jeweler, and the work of the gardener, have retained much of their old-time vocational value because of the slight changes in their more fundamental operations. The tendency to place a premium upon hand-made objects and upon all products which go into the market with the stamp of a reputation upon them, assures high rewards for exceptional care, skill, and ingenuity in these fundamental operations.

A few years ago a large New York jewelry firm brought over a young German who had developed remarkable dexterity, good taste, and inventiveness as a

jeweler and it was at his own price. This is a revival of the days of Saint Bernward, the noted Bishop of Hildesheim who, though living in the eleventh century, was not only a good bishop but also one of the most skillful workers in the precious metals who has ever lived.

There are two diverse tendencies at work in modern industry. One is towards speed and is the result of the demand for quantity in production; the other is towards fine workmanship, taste, and ingenuity and has little regard for the quantity produced. The latter pertains to the exceptional things for which special prices are willingly paid. The efforts of the school should not neglect either; for both increase earning capacity, and earning capacity is a valuable asset to the individual and to the State. Prison statistics show that the maximum of dishonesty is closely associated with the minimum of earning power.

In (b) it is assumed that respect for useful occupations and the desire to be useful can best be built up by the making of useful things. Efficiency in any occupation always involves more than mere skill and knowledge of details. Reliability is of more value than rapidity; conscience and common sense add dignity to the humblest calling. Attitude of mind is even more important than great financial gains. As imparters of vocational instruction we should be satisfied with no less than an inwrought feeling that the best possible must be done regardless of the environment and the immediate rewards.

Finally, (c) in the selection of vocational material and in the methods of dealing with it, we should adopt the following principles: (1) Impart knowledge, make objects and perform processes which will best put at the command of the pupil the materials and the activities that will be most apt to come into economic and social relation to him; (2) Have these things done in a way that will bring him into an appreciative understanding of

them as well as of his relations to his fellow men, so that his happiness as a man and his well-being as a citizen may be assured.

The Administration of Vocational Work

The problems of administration of the vocational work in the schools, especially in the later stages as the pupil approaches his actual life experiences, center around some very practical considerations.

1. Shall there be an effort to make the conditions under which the work is carried on parallel as nearly as possible actual life conditions, or is this not essential?

2. What can be done to hold the pupil for the school until he is fitly prepared for his life-work, and this regardless of his desires or the stress of home circumstances?

3. Is the duty of the public school in a democracy fulfilled when it imparts intelligence and industrial efficiency for service in the ranks, or is it also its duty to open every opportunity for all possible development no matter how advanced or how technical?

4. In the matter of expense in carrying on vocational work, what proportion of it should be borne by the State and how much of it by the locality?

5. In regard to differentiation in the work: (a) When should the more distinctly trade element appear? (b) When should a difference in the work for the sexes begin? (c) How much consideration should be given to purely local needs?

1. There has been some inclination on the part of active business men to distrust the pedagogical administration of industrial education. This has led to two distinct propositions. One is to fulfill the purposes of the vocational work by a modification of the methods and aims of existing courses of study. This would involve the minimum amount of change and the introduction of comparatively little that is new to the

School Men
or Business
Men?

school. The second plan contemplates a change in conditions which would give to the school more of the character of a shop. A strong tendency towards a position midway between these two is evident in a number of places. This tendency is evident wherever vacation schools have been established in the regular school buildings and the summer months have been given over to practical vocational work. It is also evident in the places in which the school day has been lengthened and the last hours of the day, as well as Saturday forenoon, have been devoted to such practical work. It is also the case wherever the morning is given to study and the afternoon to vocational work.

Those who advocate shop conditions for the training very naturally also advocate a representation of practically trained men in the administration of the industrial work. Germany has a dual administration of this work, one body being made up of educators and the other of business men and manufacturers, and it is urged that we should profit by the experience which led Germany to adopt the plan. In lieu of such a plan, it has been suggested that if the superintendent is a man of broad perspective, and has a well-chosen advisory board, it is better to have the whole educational system involved come under his supervision.

In endeavoring to reproduce shop conditions several difficulties at once arise. One is the heavy expense; a second, the difficulty of actually reproducing them in regard to clothing, hours of work, and all the other shop conditions; a third difficulty arises in regard to the teachers. If there is to be shop-work under shop conditions, the teacher must necessarily be a trained mechanic. As most of the teaching must be in the nature of class work, owing to the size of the groups under instruction, serious loss of time and misapplication of youthful energy usually result when the teacher is without pedagogical training and experience. This difficulty might, of course, be overcome by the same methods which should be em-

ployed for securing and retaining the proper teachers in other lines. That is by giving high enough remuneration.

There are other difficulties connected with the proper teaching of vocational work which are peculiar to it. There are practically no text-books on the various subjects which can be placed in the hands of the teacher and the pupil. Nor could such books easily be written in a way that would be likely to meet the varying school needs. This can be largely remedied, however, by putting the vocational work in charge of a supervisor who is competent to map it out in detail and who is able in various ways to put system and inspiration into it. A second difficulty is the serious loss of time that is apt to occur when pupils cannot have their vocational work within the walls of their own school building. The solution for this shall probably have to come through some readjustment of school buildings which will make each one large enough to carry on in it all of the work which properly belongs there. A third and more serious difficulty arises in connection with the question of whether the youth shall be free to choose the occupation for which he seems best fitted. The policy of Labor Unions has been to throw very binding restrictions around the number of apprentices that shall enter upon any particular occupation. As one of the important purposes of vocational education in the school is to lead up to the point where the pupil may safely choose a calling and thus save himself, for the sake of himself and for the sake of society, from becoming a misfit in life, this position of Labor Unions militates against a very fundamental thing. This was one of the issues at the last meeting of the National Education Association at Boston.

Freedom
of Choice

If the vocational work of the school for the great mass of its pupils is along the lines of the broad basic industries, then two possible solutions of the difficulty are apparent. As a basic industry, such as carpentry,

prepares for a great number of specialized occupations which lead off from it, the pupil has a wide range from which to choose and, hence, some restriction may not seriously hamper his wise choosing. But this restriction should never amount to more than setting before the pupil the facts concerning the supply of workmen in the various employments. Full and definite information always shows that, while there may be a surplus in one place, this is apt to be offset by a dearth in another. This fact, coupled with the adaptability to a change of occupation which should accompany a proper vocational foundation, should remove any fears of overcrowding or lowering of pay.

A careful study of economic developments shows a steady rise in wages which corresponds to the increase of skill and intelligence in workmen. And what is more important, it reveals a steady rise in the average number of days of employment each year. No state can have a surplus of really competent workmen; the danger always comes from having an excess of the unskilled and incompetent. It is interesting to note that various organizations of labor have expressed themselves as unwilling to see intelligence sacrificed to mere skill in the instruction of the boys and girls. If they now will also advocate a school training which, so far as industry is concerned, will prepare only for a higher, better, and shorter apprenticeship, and then abandon any thought of restricting freedom of choice, a great social as well as industrial gain will have been made.

Whatever may be the final decision in regard to conditions of the later vocational training, it remains true that it should not become narrowly utilitarian. As Van Dyke says, we Americans are a nation of idealists, even though we are solving some very practical problems. And it would be a serious loss, even a menace, to sacrifice this broader, more hopeful life for an uneventful, machine-like pace that deadens and finally kills both

aspiration and hope. In this respect the school-idea has some decided advantages over the shop-idea. For while the latter is immediately more practical, the former excels in helpful theories and inspiring ideals. Besides, the school holds out more possibility of learning the whole of a trade and therefore of its pupils becoming more broadly useful and independent; while the tendency of the shop is naturally always towards specialization and economic dependence. Hence, the school-idea is more in accordance with the socialization of education which is so rapidly taking place.

School-idea
versus
Shop-idea

2. Statistics show that nearly one-half of the pupils who are leaving school each year have not completed the grammar grades. This is a serious economic and social loss. There are two ways in which the school can retain its hold upon pupils until they are better fitted for life's issues. The period of compulsory attendance may be lengthened or the pupil may be drawn back to the school for certain favorable periods each week for a continuation of his schooling. While there would be a great gain, under favorable conditions for good work, if the compulsory period were extended to sixteen, the privations of parents would thereby in many cases be greatly increased. Various means for remedying these hardships have been suggested and tried. In Denmark, the State renders valuable assistance to both the vocational school and the needy pupil. In Germany and Switzerland, the problem is solved by requiring employers to see that their employees who are under eighteen get a certain amount of proper schooling.

These continuation schemes have been tried here and with apparent success. In Cincinnati, manufacturers testify that apprentices who attend school for four hours per week accomplish more in the remaining fifty hours in the shop than was formerly done in the entire fifty-four hours. Another plan suggested, and which has been tried to a limited

Coöperative
Plans

extent, is to have the pupils continue their full hours at school but to permit them to share in what is received from the sale of the useful products which they make in the process of their vocational training. Under such a plan, due caution must be exercised not to produce or sell under conditions which will tend to lower the price of similar articles on the market. The Continuation School plan has become so popular in Munich, that Doctor Kerschensteiner, who has done so much towards making it a success, is a strong advocate of fixing the compulsory period, with the privilege of using the continuation plan, at eighteen for boys and at sixteen for girls. He would, however, have no instruction after 7 P.M. for such pupils, in order to avoid the undesirable strain of evening work for adolescents.

3. There has been a remarkable development during the last decade in favor of giving the best possible opportunity to every one to receive all the formal education of which he is capable. This shows in the two directions of: (a) the increasing interest in the education of the backward pupils and the deficient, and (b) in the rapidly multiplying opportunities for the more advanced education. Our thought is rapidly swinging into the

larger circle of *not merely equal opportunity for all, but the best opportunity for each*. This implies in vocational work that there shall be not only the general and broader training, but also full special training. Munich carries this idea out to the full, as it has over fifty different and highly specialized continuation schools to meet the demands for learning various trades. Up to the present, in the public schools of the United States, there has been no tendency to fully teach trades. This, however, is to some extent offset by the increasing number of State institutions and free scholarships which provide for the higher technical training. That the future will have more to say upon the whole problem is becoming evident.

Best
Opportunity
for Each

4. The question of expense is a very practical and exceedingly pressing one in vocational training. With a cost varying from twenty-five to seventy-five dollars per year for educating the child in general intelligence, adding proper vocational opportunities increases the cost at once from fifty to one hundred per cent. While no extended and expensive equipment from the public funds is justified during the experimental stage of the vocational problem, any marked advance towards its solution does justify whatever may be needed.

The whole scheme of education is in the nature of an economic and social investment, and nothing brings a surer and richer return to the community and to the State than liberal investment in the proper education of the young. It takes but a small yearly increase in earning capacity to make up the difference between what we are spending for education and what we should spend. And when this earning capacity is carried through a long lifetime, the per cent. of gain is enormous. The arithmetic of the problem is simple. And this takes no account of the increased efficiency as men and women that comes from the better and safer education given. Attention has been called to the fact that the country taxes itself three or four times as much for liquors as it does for education.¹ And this is true despite the fact that Americans are inclined to be liberal in support of their schools.

The skill and intelligence of its people are two of the most valuable resources of the State. Hence, the State is intensely interested in the problem of developing skill, just as it has been interested in the problem of developing intelligence. As it has rendered liberal support in the latter case it should also in the former. To what extent it should assist probably depends upon the various local conditions. The policy

¹ See "The Problem of Vocational Education," Snedden.

of Germany has been to require the community to bear a large part of the burden of expense in vocational education, on the ground that the community naturally first and best enjoys the returns from such training. On the other hand, the Government in Belgium is so deeply interested, especially in the training of its girls for the lace factories and for the homes of the country, that it pays two-thirds of the running expenses for all vocational schools.

Because of the mobility of labor many who receive vocational instruction in a community may go elsewhere to work. This furnishes an additional argument for liberal aid from the State and even from the Federal government. Under the Morrill Acts, passed in 1862, the General Government offered to each State liberal grants of public land for the establishment and support of colleges for the higher instruction in agriculture and the mechanical arts. Under the provisions of this Act a number of State institutions have received material financial assistance and have made important advances in technical industry, although, until within very recent years, but little public progress along agricultural lines. The whole subject of vocational education is of such vital importance to the country at large, that Federal aid needs to be extended to all schools and school systems that endeavor to fit their girls for better home-life or for suitable industrial pursuits, and which provide for boys the kind of education that tends both to industrial efficiency and to nobler citizenship.

5. While all agree that there should be from the beginning of the school life instruction that will tend to put the pupil into an appreciative understanding of the vocational life of the community in which

When
Begin? he lives, giving him as well correct general impressions of industry in remote places, yet there is some difference of opinion as to when the distinctly vocational element shall be introduced. Although

it is fundamental in the educational psychology of the day that the hand as a means of gaining knowledge, of coming into interesting personal relations with actual life, and above all as a valuable avenue of expression, must receive due attention, care must be exercised so that shop tools are not placed in the hands of pupils before there is sufficient development to handle them properly. The consensus of opinion seems inclined towards not beginning general shop practice before the age of fourteen nor of specializing in a trade before sixteen. None would have less than the first six years (or until the age of twelve) devoted almost exclusively to the knowledge side of an education—some would even extend this to the full eight years of elementary school life. But the main difference is on the question of when the work with the edged tools of the shop can be advantageously introduced. In France trade studies begin at thirteen. But these studies are of a general character until the pupil is regarded as sufficiently developed to be able to make a wise choice for more specific work.

That, under wise guidance, well-chosen vocational operations in such easily manipulated material as clay, cardboard, yarns and textile materials, foodstuffs, soft wood, and pliable metal may with both profit and an abiding interest be taken up at an early age in the classroom, or in entirely convenient work-rooms set aside for the purpose, has been demonstrated for some years. But that pupils at this early age are too immature to handle machinery is also evident.

Because of sex differences and probable life vocations some differentiation in the work of boys and girls must begin as soon as the girls are mature enough to take up any of the domestic arts. As this <sup>Differentia-
tion</sup> period corresponds fairly well with the time when boys are easily interested in experiments and constructive activities, the arranging of a vocational program to meet the needs of both sexes is comparatively easy.

Just how much differentiation in the general vocational program should be permitted to meet purely local needs is a serious question. There is always grave danger of giving paramount importance to local conditions, thereby militating against the broader training which makes for industrial adaptability. Fortunately, the continuation school idea affords a solution for the local need. The broader fundamental vocational training may be given and then, after the pupil enters the shop, he can get his more specific training during the favorable periods of release granted him by the shop for this purpose.

The vocational idea has laid strong hold upon the educational desires of our people. Naturally, our trained educators are expected to organize and administer the ideas and the work involved. That they may receive material assistance from broad-minded men and women who are in active touch with business, industry, and social life, is evident. That the best results can be secured only through earnest coöperation is equally true. Switzerland, which furnishes probably the best illustration in such matters of the force of a national interest which is harmonious and general, has shown truly remarkable progress in training boys and girls for actual life. And this has been accomplished because teachers, employers, trade unions, and the State have met and worked together for the best interests of the child.

To reach the same results we must do the same. But we must also, as the matter stands at present, do more; for there must be a continuation of the campaign which aims to show that vocational education is: (1) feasible; (2) economically of advantage; (3) intellectually helpful; (4) morally uplifting; and (5) socially conservatory of progress, of contentment, and of happiness. These are the lines on which the old liberal education has been upheld and defended. On lines less broad the vocational idea cannot be expected to win an abiding place in our scheme of instruction.

CHAPTER II

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

AN undertone of alarm has been evident for some time past whenever our natural resources have been under consideration. This has been especially true in regard to our food-supply, for which we are dependent upon the farmer. The rapidly increasing cost of almost all food-products has fostered this feeling and given a ready hearing from time to time to statements and predictions that are almost alarming in their nature.

Undertone
of Alarm

James J. Hill, in a recent series of clearly stated and forcibly expressed articles in the *World's Work*, voices this somewhat pessimistic attitude. An extract from one of his articles will give his point of view: "Practically speaking, our public lands are about all occupied. Our other natural resources have been exploited with a lavish hand. Our iron and coal supplies will show signs of exhaustion before fifty years have passed. The former, at the present rate of increasing production, will be greatly reduced. Our forests are going rapidly; our supply of mineral oil flows to the ends of the earth. The soil of the country is being impoverished by careless treatment. In some of the richest portions of the country its productivity has deteriorated fully 50 per cent. These are facts to which necessity will compel our attention before we have reached the middle of this century. To a realization of our position, and especially to a jealous care of our land resources, both as to quantity and quality, to a mode of cultivation that will at once multiply the yield per acre and restore instead of impairing fertility, we must come without delay. There is no issue, in busi-

ness or in politics, that compares in importance or in power with this." ¹

There is no question that our food-consumption is now growing more rapidly than our food-production.

Food-supply And if, as seems probable, the population of our country shall have increased to 200,000,000 by 1950, double our present wheat supply, or in round numbers 1,300,000,000 bushels, will then be needed to furnish a supply of bread alone. Nor can we rely upon help from foreign lands at that time for, with increasing civilization, everywhere goes increased demand for wheat-bread. As an indication of our own increased consumption, as compared with our supply, it need only be stated that for the five years ending 1909 there was a decrease in our export of wheat of 40 per cent. Of course, some of this was due to other causes, but we cannot look, as we have in the past, to an unoccupied West to make good the loss. As Mr. Hill says, our public lands are about all occupied and we must look to other means for an increased supply.

The importance of agriculture cannot be denied. We are, after all, an agricultural people and the value of our farm products greatly exceeds that of any other single industry. At present we are raising 43 per cent. of all the grain (wheat, corn, and oats) raised in the world, and about 70 per cent. of all the cotton used. These represent an annual value of about eight billion dollars. That they are almost as necessary to our material progress as they are to life itself is evident. After all, the farm is the basis of all industrial life, and to it we go back for rejuvenation in nobility and true independence of character.

Mr. Hill calls attention to the fact that land is the only natural resource which is not exhausted in produc-

¹ *World's Work*, December, 1909.

tion. Coal mines are exhausted; oil wells run dry; forests disappear; but the land, under proper treatment, each year renews its bountiful return for our labors. Due interest and wisdom in dealing with it should therefore assure a more hopeful future. Upon the importance of the farmer's occupation Mr. Hill has this to say: "It is made clear by every process of logic and by the proof of historic fact, that the wealth of a nation, the character of its people, the quality and permanence of its institutions are all dependent upon a sound and sufficient agricultural foundation. Not armies or navies or commerce or diversity of manufactures or anything other than the farm is the anchor which will hold through the storms of time that sweep all else away."

FARMING IN THE PAST.—It is very noticeable that the growth of agriculture has not kept pace with the developments in other occupations. While there have been far-reaching improvements in farm machinery, these improvements have been forced upon the farmer by the enterprise of manufacturers and by his dire need for labor-saving machinery, and are not the result of his own development. Both capital and science have been busy in other occupations increasing the quality and the quantity of their products, getting larger returns from material and for investments of time and energy, and finding ways of sifting value from waste products. But on the farm, the free growth of the virgin soil has been allowed gradually to diminish until now the average yield of wheat per acre in the United States is but fourteen bushels as against an average of thirty and over in Great Britain and some other European countries. Intensive cultivation in these countries has made good their loss from the diminishing size of their farms. While they are wasteful of labor in their farming, the advantage of our improved farm machinery is more than lost in our neglect of the essential machinery in production—the land itself.

There are many explanations for this condition. One is an extreme conservatism that has led farmers to regard the soil as unworthy any other consideration than that accorded it by their fathers.

Cause of
Conditions

Another has been the unbusiness-like methods of the farmer which have kept him under the disheartening influence of lack of prosperity without his being able to account for his inability to gain headway. A third has been the long hours and the lack of comfort and promise for the future on the farm—things which have driven its sons and daughters to the towns and cities.

→ The school has been accused of fostering this exodus by presenting only the allurements of business and professional life. But the most fruitful source of the unfavorable condition has been the almost inexplicable neglect of the farmer by our Government, in favor of the merchant and the manufacturer. Just why the producer of raw materials has been given a place by our lawmakers that is subordinate to that of the manufacturer and trader who live upon his products is difficult to understand. At present there is a great preponderance of city representation on all important enterprises, whether they deal with matters affecting the life of the farmer or not. That this condition can be remedied by the farmers themselves has been demonstrated in such countries as Denmark, where the farmers rule, and through the power and influence of the farmer brought about by coöperative agriculture as it is developing in the West.

IMPROVING CONDITIONS.—The farmer is slowly beginning to realize his importance in the affairs of the nation. He is receiving good prices for his products; better business methods are beginning to conserve the fruits of his labors; and comfort is rapidly coming into his home. Besides, science has at last touched the work of the farmer with its magic wand and has given to it a surety of success heretofore unknown. Soils are now

analyzed for the double purpose of seeing what crops they will best raise and what fertilizer is needed to supply worn-out or missing elements of growth. Alternation and rotation of crops have been reduced to a system which permits either rest or enriching of the soil. Careful and persistent experimenters are improving the quality of seed and thus greatly multiplying the possibility of the acres even without any increase of the acreage.

But great feats of engineering are also redeeming vast tracts of deserts and swamp land and thus adding materially to the amount of tillable land. Economic breeding of stock has been introduced and has added large sums to the income of the farmer; and the waste of the farm-yard is being turned back on the soil for its enrichment. Great improvements in machinery, both for the farmer and the farmer's wife, are making lighter the burdens and more pleasant the duties of life on the farm. All these things are giving a new aspect to the farmer's occupation, and the boys and girls of the farm are thinking less of leaving its fields for the streets of the city.

Improved
Farm
Machinery

Ten years ago, at the University of Oxford, a lecturer on political economy laid it down as axiomatic that science and invention, the division of labor, and utilization of water products (things that have revolutionized manufacturing industry and chemical processes in manufacture) could do little to save human labor on the farm. To-day eight State colleges are offering full courses in agricultural engineering, science is improving crops and assuring the farmer of a liberal return.

The new internal-combustion engine, made possible by the research and ingenuity of John A. Secor, costs \$90 per horsepower while a horse costs from \$175 to \$200. The power costs in fuel $\frac{1}{2}$ cent per horsepower, while a horse's food for the same power costs 8 $\frac{1}{4}$ c. The latest harvester does the work of 40 men with sickles.

The latest farm machinery increases enormously "the acre-efficiency" of a man and saves human labor at a time when it is so scarce. Secor discovered a positive and automatic way of producing perfect combustion in an engine, whether gasoline, kerosene, or alcohol be the fuel. A farmer now with a traction truck, which replaces wagon and horses, can hitch it to one or more plows and can perform a great variety of other services ordinarily performed by stationary or traction engine.

An acre of land will produce 400 bushels of German alcohol-potatoes, which will yield a gallon and a half of alcohol to the bushel. With one mechanical "tractor," and one acre of potatoes turned into alcohol, it is possible to plow 200 acres of land; for which 8 horses and 40 acres of oats and hay land would ordinarily be needed. Hence, new methods on the farm will prove a great saving of food products. The new chemistry is also able to extract, by tons and cheaply, nitrate fertilizers from the air, thus guaranteeing inexhaustible fertility to the earth.

In a talk given to a convention of millers which was held at Minneapolis a few months ago, Mr. Carleton, of the Bureau of Plant Industry, reflected this

More Hope-
ful View more promising outlook in so far as it pertains to the future supply of wheat. Reckoning the present yearly world supply at something over three billions of bushels, he stated his belief that improved agriculture and a continued extension of the acreage in this country, Canada, Argentina, and Russia would within the next forty years raise the amount to five and a half billions. And this would be a gain much beyond any possible increase of need through growth of the world's population.

His more hopeful view is probably nearer the truth. In few places has the full productive capacity of the soil been developed. There are also great areas of land as yet uncultivated and immense tracts that could be

redeemed from their present untillable condition. Improvements in farming implements are in a large measure offsetting the increased cost of labor. Though the cost of transportation has of late been increasing, our possible interior waterway transportation is practically undeveloped. Farming as an occupation is becoming more attractive as well as more scientific. Many of the abandoned farms of New England and elsewhere are again being taken up. Prices for farm products are good and, altogether, there are few callings which now present more promising careers for the young than do the various branches of agriculture.

THE FARM AND THE SCHOOL.—In this regeneration of the farm, the school is now playing an important part. The first attempt to give scientific training to farmers was at Cleveland, in 1836, by Dr. Norton S. Townsend. But his efforts received little support. In 1842, Harvard University, through the will of Benjamin Bussey, received an endowment for agricultural education. Under the Morrill Act passed by Congress in 1862, the United States offered to each State liberal grants of public land for the establishment and support of colleges for the higher instruction in agriculture and in the mechanic arts. Most of the States took advantage of this offer; but there were then few teachers competent to give instruction in practical agriculture, and the farmers only laughed at their efforts. Horace Greeley even conducted a funny column in the *Tribune*, the jokes of which assumed that it was gross presumption for academically trained men to offer to teach these practical men of the soil. In this column, which was called "Advice to Farmers," appeared such statements as "In broom corn be sure to plant the striped-handle variety. It commands a higher price." The agricultural colleges were denominated barnyard colleges, the teachers peanut pedagogues, and jokes were free about the danger of mixing tap roots with Greek and Latin roots.

But all of this is changed, and largely through the attitude of the farmer himself. He has awakened to the fact that there is something to learn, and a place for him to exert his influence outside the limits of the farm. The farmer has at last been caught in the current of progress. He now both respects and welcomes the teachings of the schools, and the persistent efforts of the schools of agriculture are at last bearing fruit. The first Commonwealth to make provision for the establishment of a State college of agriculture was Michigan. This was soon followed by a number of others with a gradual extension of their courses until finally, in 1908, the University of Chicago established a three-year graduate course in Agriculture.

But the schools would probably have been much longer in getting their hearing had it not been for the valuable assistance rendered by the Department of Agriculture at Washington. Through its assistance and the encouragement of its energetic head, Secretary James Wilson, experiment stations, lecture and demonstration tours, short winter courses for farmers at the various agricultural colleges and their branches, have sprung up and exercised an influence which is rapidly placing farming on a scientific, business-like, paying basis. But best of all, boys and girls in the rural districts, especially in the West and in the South, are receiving the vocational instruction to which their natural environment entitles them. And this instruction is carried from the elementary into the high school. Nor is the city boy neglected. Through the influence of school-garden work, he has also his opportunity to taste of the pleasure and profit of seeing things grow.

Not only communities, but whole States, are taking an interest in the subject as never before. Georgia now requires certain elementary principles of agriculture to be taught in all the public schools. Its agricultural college for colored students at Savannah sends out

trains, with instructors to hold meetings in rural communities, for the purpose of interesting the adult farmer and helping him in his daily life. Eleven "District Schools," one in each Congressional district, are serving as high schools that prepare all white students who wish to go to the main college of agriculture which is at Athens. Other Southern States are joining in the movement and are encouraging their people to raise from the soil the means of emerging from a debt-ridden past. During the ten years ending 1908, the Southern States more than doubled the value of their staple products. The reports of the Department of Agriculture at Washington show that, in the year 1908, out of the twenty-six States leading in agricultural products, eleven of them were Southern States. But the most notable achievement, not only in the South but all over the country, is the changed spirit of the farmer and the confidence and determination which have supplanted all his years of discouragement.

What
States are
Doing

But much yet remains to be done. The help being given to adults is bearing some immediate fruit, but the greatest hope for the future is in the proper training of the young. For this purpose there is a great dearth of properly prepared teachers and a lack of properly organized courses of study. The mere tacking on of agricultural knowledge and agricultural work to a course of study does not constitute proper training for the farm. Too often, the agricultural work in a high-school course has been simply an academic treatment of the subject which has developed no clear understanding of the real problems and no appreciation of the opportunities for successful life on the farm. There are notable exceptions to this, but without a general supply of teachers who are well trained and conscientious in this subject and a proper selection and organization of the work to be done, much valuable time and effort will be lost.

Teachers

Nor is the agricultural school work yet well administered, especially outside of the higher institutions. In many places, spasmodic teaching for a few brief periods each week and a perfunctory raising of a few flowers or vegetables are made to pass for training for the farm. This is a matter that mere legislation cannot remedy. Better equipment for the work is also needed. Some hold to the idea that in rural districts, because of the ease with which the farm can be appealed to for practical tests and results, little is needed in the school but the knowledge side of agriculture. Two things militate against this. One is the fact that in few rural communities do all of the pupils come from the farm; the other is the tendency to centralize the school facilities of as large rural areas as possible. Both of these make it advisable to center the interests of the school around its own doors. Besides, it is well to have all the activities and tests and comparisons of the school come immediately under the eye and the control of the teacher. In Sweden, where the schoolmaster lives in the school building and centers about it his little farm or garden, the problem is much nearer solution.

That it will be difficult, under existing conditions in the large cities, to bring agricultural influences to bear with much force upon any large number of pupils is apparent. The tendency to suburban life will probably help to some extent; but a feasible plan for setting before boys and girls of the city an equal opportunity for entering upon this most interesting and independent of all occupations will be difficult to work out. That it is an important problem no one can doubt, for it is the tendency towards the great centers of population that has been depleting the farms and helping to lower the annual production of farm products. This tendency has centered in the cities an oversupply of consumers in comparison to the number of producers. This oversupply

must be taught the elements of agriculture and turned back to the farms to make good our loss in food supplies.

Owing to the scattered population and relatively lower individual wealth of rural districts, such communities have far more serious difficulty in meeting by taxation their school needs than is the case in urban places with their greater wealth and more crowded population. This makes liberal aid from the State for the rural school imperative; nor should the State hesitate to aid in a matter so vital to its own welfare. With the results of the encouragement of agriculture and the helpful interest in farmers that is shown by so many European countries before it, no State need fear a loss from liberally supporting in every possible way the highest development of the resources of its soil.

The great freight railroads are finding it to their advantage to take up the work of instructing the farmer, to the end that he may increase his crops and that they may get him to occupy new territory, thus furnishing them increased business and new fields for their own enterprise. For this purpose they are equipping trains with exhibits and instructors and are sending them out among the farmers.

What Rail-
roads are
Doing

The Erie Railroad has in this way sent out "milk specials" into the regions where dairying and cattle breeding are carried on extensively. In other sections, horticulture in all its branches is the subject of instruction; while throughout the South these "colleges on wheels" are paying especial attention to raising crops in a way that will enrich instead of further impoverishing the worn-out soil. In the West more of these trains have been equipped as grain specials because of the prevalence of this industry in that region.

And now the New York Central is sending out a special car for the benefit of boys and girls, under John W. Spencer, a retired Cornell professor, who, while at that institution, replied to questions sent by boys and girls

to its Agricultural Department, over his signature as "Uncle John." As "Uncle John's" name had become a household word in rural Western New York, this train has at once leaped into popularity. He talks to the boys and girls about the care of gardens, tells them how to grow flowers, and calls their attention to the soil that is ever waiting to do man's bidding. He reveals some of the wonders of insect life, and tells how the injurious ones may be conquered. When they bring to him diseased or stunted fruits and vegetables he explains how these faults may be remedied. And the testimony is that "Uncle John's" boys and girls are the most enthusiastic farmers of all who are reached by these influences.

There is also a poultry car, where poultrying in all its details is taught; two live cows, one bred at Cornell University, the other of common stock, form one of the exhibits which graphically assist in the instruction in dairying. Market gardening is also taught in all of its branches. The State Foresters have also used the same method in the regions where there is still plenty of forest standing.

The Pennsylvania Railroad has recently taken up a similar kind of work; and now it is reported that the idea is laying hold in England and Wales, although as yet only in a limited way. The first effort seems to have been made by the National Poultry Organization Society, which has been giving lectures in this way on poultry-raising for the sake of eggs.

MEANS OF FURTHER DEVELOPMENT. — Professor Liberty H. Bailey, Chairman of the Country Life Commission appointed by President Roosevelt, in a recent address, emphasized two of the most important conclusions of the Commission as to the means for improving the condition of life on the farm:

1. There should be a general introduction of education in agriculture into the public school system.

2. There must be a working together on equal terms of city and country folks.

Without this general introduction of instruction in agriculture, the development of knowledge and interest in things pertaining to the farm will be unable to keep pace with developments in other callings. The handicap under which the farm has for so long been working will then never be removed. This would be extremely unfortunate, for, as a nation, we need constantly to be renewed by the good health and moral vigor which, after all, give the richest returns from working in the soil.

There has been a great tendency for the dweller in the city to look down upon the hardy sons of the soil and to grant them none of the prominent places in the great social, economic, and political movements. This, as Professor Bailey says, must not be. The two, the city man and the country man, must coöperate as equal forces in society. The city must give much in return for the products of the farm. Money cannot wholly pay for the things upon which life itself depends. On the other hand, the farmer must put himself more in touch with all that is best in the city. He is entitled to all the comfort and culture that he can bring to the doors of his country home. And, with a more intelligent use of his time and his means, both comfort and culture are at his command. Comfort and culture, joined with coöperation, will then give him a worthy place in the social organism.

Attitude
of City

There is no calling that can so easily be made to appeal to youth's love of out-door activities as farming. There is no other occupation that affords such a variety of interests. That the work of the farm need be hard and the hours long, as compared with the drive of the shops, the mad competition of the marts of trade, and the burdens of a profession, is not true. No one is more complete master of his time and of his independence than the farmer; but he

Opportunities

must not be driven by lack of intelligence and unbusiness-like ways. Nor will there for years be any danger of overcrowding in the ranks of the farmers.

William Jennings Bryan, who has just returned from an extended tour in Central America and South America, has changed Horace Greeley's famous "Go West, young man," to "Learn Spanish and go South." While there are no longer great stretches of virgin soil west of the Mississippi to be occupied; while the inflow into Western Canada is so rapidly raising the price of land; and while there will soon be no place in North America where a homestead can be secured for the asking, Mr. Bryan calls attention to the great stretches of rich and unoccupied land in these southern countries. He mentions especially "the montaña land of Peru," a wooded country containing some 500,000 square miles on the east slope of the Andes. He also says that there is a similar tract in Bolivia, and that the opening of the Panama Canal will bring all of this territory within our zone of trade. And all of this opportunity for growth takes no account of the possibilities in our own country, through smaller farms and more intensive cultivation, nor of the vast stretches that await redemption by drainage and irrigation.

But these are only a few of the opportunities presented by the soil. The enchanting field that it opens for the scientific investigator and experimenter has been little explored. And yet the marvels wrought in plant-life by the California Wizard, Luther Burbank; the painstaking work of the Canadian Scotchman, Wm. Saunders, and his scholarly son, Dr. Charles E. Saunders, who through their efforts have evolved wheats ripening from ten days to two weeks earlier than the usual brands and thus have extended the wheat belt hundreds of miles further north; and the results of the experimentation of scientifically trained men, connected with agricultural institutions and State and National experiment stations,

that have put more grains of corn on the cob, packed more into the head of wheat, and withal improved the quality of each and in these ways helped to assure our comfort and continued prosperity,—all of these speak of possibilities well worth while for the highest talent and the greatest ability.

That agriculture offers excellent business opportunities to the man who will carry it on in a business-like way is evident from the success of the fruit growers of California and Oregon, from the increased prosperity of Southern farmers, and from the good prices received for food products everywhere. Recently there died in Missouri a farmer who left a fortune of three and a half million dollars made from farming alone. This was David Rankin, one of the many thousand men attracted some years ago by the reports of the wonderful mineral wealth being uncovered in the Sierras and the Rockies. Mr. Rankin, however, stopped in Missouri and planted corn. From the fifty poor acres with which he started he developed his resources until he owned thirty-four thousand acres at the time of his decease. His crop four years ago amounted to a million bushels of corn of excellent quality because he had made a careful study of soils and the raising of corn. For this he became so noted that experts from all over the world visited him and sought his advice. The career of David Rankin should indicate to the boy who contemplates leaving the farm for a business career, that opportunity of the most promising kind is to be found right at his own door.

But the records for the last forty years show that most of the sons and daughters of the farm who get a taste for business or the higher schooling—
and there is a goodly percentage of them who do—leave the farm. This is not as it should be. To hold them on the farm, present efforts along the following lines need to be greatly strengthened and extended:

Suggestions

1. The adult farmers need to be reached and induced

to adopt better methods and to introduce better planned work and more comfort into their home life.

2. Possibilities for self-improvement, as well as for more scientific farming, need to be placed within reach of the young people already employed upon the farm.

3. The returns for farming need to be placed upon a more business-like basis—(a) through crop improvement; (b) through methods of giving assurance to success; (c) through better methods of marketing the products of the farm.

4. The rural schools must be greatly strengthened.

Decided progress is being made in many places in the first three of these requirements. The fourth is the one which at present is causing most anxiety. There are several things, however, that make the outlook more promising. There is a more general realization of the importance of the problem and clearer ideas as to methods of its possible solution. Another gain is through the commendable tendency to replace a group of small and exceedingly weak schools by one that is larger and which can be better organized and better equipped for good work. This necessitates the transportation of children who are too distant to walk to the school-center. But educationally this is an economy and it almost invariably proves to be an actual saving in total expenditure. A third and most hopeful feature is the movement towards securing and retaining well-trained teachers for these schools. Combined as these things are with changing conditions in comfort and convenience through the replacing of hand labor by machine labor, through the coming of the trolley and the introduction of the automobile, the gasoline engine, and the telephone, there is promise for successful life on the farm.

PART II

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPMENTS DIRECTLY AFFECTING THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The Public School and the People

THERE are at present over 17,000,000 boys and girls receiving instruction in the public schools of the United States. They are taught by 496,000 teachers, and the annual expense for their instruction is about \$372,000,-000. These figures are significant of the fact that the people have a tremendous faith in the public school and in the possible fulfillment of an earnest desire to give their sons and daughters a chance in life.

Because the School, which has been the growth of the centuries, has been somewhat slow in adapting itself to the changing social and economic conditions, there has been a more or less severe arraignment of its work during the past few years, usually under the glaring headline of "What is Wrong with the Public School?" While the friends of the School have always regarded it as a tower of strength, it is doubtful if any of them ever regarded it as capable of accomplishing, for every one admitted to its doors, quite all that its critics seem to have regarded it as capable of doing. Of this unintended compliment the School should be proud. For the business man, the manufacturer, the inventor, the scholar, the moralist, the religionist to say that it falls short of doing all it should along the lines in which each of them is interested is merely another way of saying that in their minds the School holds a big place in the affairs of life.

Criticism
of the
School

It is gratifying to realize that during the past year there has been less of destructive criticism of the School, and more of earnest, constructive work in its behalf. This is as it should be, for, although faults should be corrected and the weak places strengthened, these things cannot be accomplished by a destruction of public confidence or a fostering of the fault-finding spirit. Although, no doubt, some of the criticism has been due to the solicitations of energetic editors coupled with a yielding to the temptation of appearing in public print, much of it has been the result of an honest and widespread fear of the ultimate effects of certain tendencies in our country, should they remain unchecked. That so many should instinctively turn to the School for redemption from these tendencies and be somewhat disappointed at not finding there a ready-made specific for the ills, was to be expected. But this is not saying that the School cannot and should not do more and do it better.

Progress in all institutions administered by the public is admittedly slow. And the School is more directly under the control of the people at large than is any other public function. That its growth and development cannot be more rapid than is the evolution of the people who administer its affairs, is evident. The School reflects the Community. And herein lies the blame for the shortcomings of the School: it has been administered in an unbusiness-like way and too often with the representatives of other interests than the best interests of the children in control. Evidence is accumulating that the people are beginning to realize this, and that publicity and a clearer insight of the needs of the School will now guarantee more rapid progress. The hope of the School is in a fuller knowledge of its meaning and needs and in a greater zeal and determination in administering to these. The duty of every true citizen lies not in discrediting the School but in

working with courage and unselfishness to make it all that it may be.

Dr. Faunce has called the School the great "melting-pot" where our diverse people and multiple interests are fused into national unity. It is also the soil from which grows self-support, a primary virtue in a republic. But life is more than the mere ability to earn a living; hence, it is well that the free air of the School serves to develop culture and noble feeling. However, most of our education is gotten after we leave school. Hence, the most important work of the School after all is to foster the spirit of the learner. On the tomb of John Henry Green is recorded the high tribute, "He died learning."

It is a hopeful sign, that in the midst of all of the unrest which is coming with the public awakening, there is developing a recognition of the superior claims of the public as compared with the private good. Under the influence of this spirit, there has been, during the past year, a gratifying continuation of the efforts to broaden and extend the usefulness of all of the agencies that tend to instruct the youth and to improve the condition of the masses. For these purposes, the people have shown a greater willingness to be taxed and many of our rich a praiseworthy desire to give freely of their wealth. The agencies that are standing out most prominently in this work are the School, the Library, and the Art Gallery. To these is being rapidly added the work and influence of the Hospital and the Museum. The tendency is to throw the best influence of all of these open to the School. This is in recognition of the superior importance and possibility of the School. It is also in accord with the intense desire, amounting almost to a passion in the West, for the fruits of education.

Hopeful
Signs

Nor is this desire directed entirely towards the young. The average age of those who are in some way "going

to school" is growing higher each year. Doctor Griffith, the director of the Art Museum in Detroit, is giving illustrated lectures which run parallel with the school courses in history, geography, and science. St. Joseph is making its public library a hall of higher instruction for all in literature, as well as a center of distribution for valuable supplementary reading material for the schools. And throughout the Middle West, and in many places in the East and in the South, lecture and demonstration tours are putting the farmers back again in school.

There was an old law among the Jews, which later on was also adopted by the Mohammedans, that no building should rise higher than the place of worship. With almost equal reverence, our early New England ancestors established and maintained the School. And, among the Dutch and Swedish colonists, the School was always coincident with the Church, and indeed was very often held within its walls. But then came large industry and wealth. And with these arose other things to demand interest and attention. These have not been the best days for the School. But all of this is changing; and once again we shall have no interest rising higher than that of the School.

The Problems of the School.

The problems of the School center about questions of:

- (a) Equipment.
- (b) The organization of the work of the School.
- (c) How to keep pupils at school until they are educated.
- (d) Care for the health of pupils.
- (e) How to meet the needs of special types of pupils.
- (f) The proper training of teachers.
- (g) The cost of education.
- (h) Administering the work of the School.

(2) Special bearing upon one or more of the following:

1. The elementary school.
2. The high school.
3. Continuation schools.
4. School gardens and vacation schools.

(a) SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND OTHER EQUIPMENT.—

The most marked improvement in connection with School buildings during the past year has been in the line of requiring a minimum standard in lighting, heating, and ventilation to be met. One of the important developments in regard to ventilation has been that, regardless of the system of natural or artificial ventilation, the windows of all occupied class-rooms should be thrown open each hour while the children are marching or are engaged in exercise. This is because the stimulating effects of change of temperature are now regarded as being fully as necessary as is a continual supply of uniformly heated and uniformly moistened pure air.

Air to be fit for breathing must contain a large percentage of water vapor. In out-door air this remains with fair uniformity at 72 per cent. or nearly three-fourths of the moisture that the air will hold before precipitation occurs. The removal of any of this moisture causes the air to endeavor to restore its loss by absorbing it from other sources. Hence, a very dry atmosphere is very bad for the nose and throat and bronchial tubes; for their naturally moist mucous surfaces are very open to such an attack. Their secretions are also great germ-destroyers and the drying up, caused by the moisture-poor air, throws the body open to the successful attacks of contagious diseases.

As tests have revealed many school-rooms in which the humidity was as low as 18 per cent., it should not be difficult to account for the colds and epidemics directly traceable to the school. In addition to this, however,

the importance of well-oxygenated blood to vigorous mentality must not be forgotten. The child with a dry throat or with a nose whose mucous lining has been dried and cracked by superheated, moisture-robbed air will be slow to learn; and with both, it is in danger of being unable to learn anything.

In an interesting article in *McClure's* for August, Burton J. Kendrick says that in Chicago the educational authorities have coined a new verb, "to humidify." "The meaning is simple; all hot air, before entering the school-room, is passed through jets of water or of steam. It now picks up its moisture in humidifying chambers in the basement, instead of in the throats and nasal passages of the children and the teachers."

Not only is this humidifying of the air being introduced elsewhere, but there is also a strong tendency everywhere not to permit the temperature of the classroom to rise above 68°. This marks quite a change from the old standard of 70° or 72° and, from all accounts, the change to a better class of work, as a result of this, is even more marked.

School Architecture.—A new type of high-school building is reported from Los Angeles. In the new Hollywood School of that city, the different departments are housed in separate buildings, after the manner of university buildings. The demand for fireproof structures has also made some progress, especially in the large cities.

School Desks.—There has been the usual complaint about adjustable desks remaining unadjusted. William A. Stecher, Physical Director of Schools in Philadelphia, made during the year 1909 a careful investigation of school furniture in the public schools of that city and arrived at the following conclusions:

1. That by actual measurement 9 per cent., or approximately 16,000 of the pupils in the Philadelphia Schools, were seated at desks which were either too

large or too small for them. Of this number, 14,000 were seated at desks in which either the seat or the top on which the pupil works was too high for them. Besides affecting the health of the pupil, this improper seating produces restlessness and inattention which in turn increase the difficulty of teaching.

In order to secure the desk measurements of a child it was seated on the top of a flat table. A book was then held under the feet of the child, and the measurement of the leg from the sole of the foot to the under side of the thigh (*i.e.*, to the top of the table) was taken. Then the height of the elbow from the book was secured (the upper arm being held close to the side of the body), as the measurement of the distance of the elbow from the floor. This gave the two measurements needed—the greatest height the seat should have and the least height the desk should have, for the comfort and health of the child.

In grouping the measurements, fractions of inches were dropped in the leg measurements, for the reason that a child with a $16\frac{5}{8}$ inch leg could comfortably and healthfully sit on a seat 16 inches from the floor. On a seat 17 inches from the floor, however, his feet would be $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch from the floor. In the elbow measurements, on the contrary, the fractions, if not too near the lower number, were raised; for example, a child with a $25\frac{5}{8}$ inch elbow measurement could better raise its arms upward $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch to a 26 inch desk than bend forward to work upon a 25 inch desk.

2. A surprising variation in leg measurements was discovered. For example, pupils with a 12 inch leg measurement were found in all grades from 1 A (beginners 6 years old) to the 5 A (the first half of the 5th year of school); pupils with a 13 inch measurement were found in 1 A to 6 A; with 14 inch measurement in 1 A to 8 A (the first half of the 8th year of school); and with a 15 inch measurement in all of the grades of

the elementary school. As these measurements were taken in various sections of the city, they represent all classes of children and are no doubt typical of classrooms everywhere in the country.

The only variation found in different sections of the city was, that among children coming from homes above the average the measurements were slightly higher than were those obtained in the poorer sections.

3. The variation in elbow-height was also found to be surprisingly great, especially in its relation to the leg-height. For example, pupils with a leg-height of 12 inches varied 3 inches in elbow-height, or measured from 19 to 22 inches; those of 13 inch leg measurement varied also 3 inches, or from 20 to 23 inches; those of 14 inch leg measurement varied 6 inches, or from 19 to 25 inches; while those of 15 inch leg measurement varied 5 inches, or from 21 to 26 inches. The greatest variations were with the 16 and 17 inch leg measurements, where the variation in elbow measurements was 7 inches or from 21 to 28 inches in the former, and from 23 inches to 30 inches in the latter.

It is thus clearly evident that both the seat and the top of the desk must have adjustments that are entirely independent of each other.

4. The investigation revealed that adjustable desks, after they have once been adjusted, are seldom thereafter changed to meet the needs of the various sized children who occupy them. In fact in one large school, fitted throughout with adjustable desks, the feet of more than 50 per cent. of the children did not touch the floor, and there were raised shoulders and stooped shoulders in almost equal proportion.

Professor Stecher adds: "From reliable information received during several years, I have good reason to believe that this same condition prevails in small cities as well as in large cities. It can, therefore, be said that the present adjustable desks do not satisfy the demand.

What is needed is a desk and seat that the child itself can at once adjust to its immediate need."

5. For the upper grades, a desk top of greater depth for writing and drawing is desirable in order to avoid the evils of cramped space.

Text-books.—An Englishman, Mr. Gorst, recently somewhat startled New York audiences by preaching against the use of books in education. "Books," he said, "are dangerous things unless handled with discrimination." He accused the schools, through their addiction to the use of text-books, of destroying mental individuality, and especially of discouraging both imagination and reflection, by cramming the mind with more facts than it can digest.

Dearth of Teachers.—The dearth of properly trained teachers continues. This is especially noticeable in regard to teachers of such special subjects as agriculture, the domestic arts, and other vocational subjects, and in well-trained teachers for special types of children. This dearth is having the effect of increasing salaries for such types of work.

(b) SCHOOL ORGANIZATION.—The tendency to introduce the vocational element more fully into the schools has been noted.

Superintendent Bunker of Berkeley, California, has presented a plan of reorganization, to the Board of Education of that City, which should remove some of the difficulties of providing accommodations for the younger pupils, while at the same time making a more effective arrangement for older pupils. He plans that the elementary school shall have a six-year course instead of a nine-year course as it exists there at present. The seventh, eighth, and ninth year pupils shall then be assembled at convenient centers for work which is introductory to the high-school course, the high schools themselves to furnish this additional three-year preparatory course. Under this

Supt.
Bunker's
Plan

arrangement, Superintendent Bunker hopes to provide more room for the younger pupils and to make the transition from the elementary to the high school much more smoothly, while at the same time meeting the needs and capacities of the pupils in a more psychological and economical way.

(c) HOW TO KEEP PUPILS IN THE SCHOOL.—In an article in the *World's Work* for August, 1910, Dr. Luther H. Gulick says an army of 250,000 children¹ drop out of the public schools each year practically because the standards are too high and the teaching too dull. "The larger fraction of these 250,000 educational failures had completed only six of the eight years in the course of study"—referring of course to the elementary school.

Three years ago, Dr. Gulick and Leonard P. Ayres were delegated by the Russell Sage Foundation to collect data in regard to why children leave school.

Early With-
drawal And the above forms part of the conclusions reached by them. Dr. Gulick also calls attention to the importance of the last two years in the elementary course, because it is during that time that the studies basal to good citizenship are giving the most benefit. During the first six years pupils are acquiring the tools of knowledge, but during the last two years they learn more about applying them than during all the others combined.

He believes there are four great underlying sources of loss in our schools.

1. Losses from the ranks due to the lack of adjustment between the length of the compulsory period and the length of the school course.

2. Losses due to preventable ill health or to removable physical defects.

3. Losses due to irregular school attendance.

¹ This, however, represents less than 1½ per cent. of the total enrollment.

4. Losses due to the fact that the courses of study are either too difficult or are not adapted to the average pupil.

He would base the compulsory attendance period on two things: (1) the age at which it is best for children to enter school and (2) the age at which pupils should complete the elementary course.

Mr. Ayres claims that his studies refute the old idea that a pupil entering at 8 does as well as one who enters at 6. For he finds that there is a larger percentage of the 6 and 7 year children who graduate than there is of the 8 year children; also that while, for a time, the 8 year old child advances more rapidly, it is not rapidly enough to make up for the lost year or two at the beginning. Hence, children should enter at 6 or 7. They should be graduated at fourteen or fifteen; for they are then "gripped by a new spirit of energy and independence which demands either the larger liberty of the high school or the obligations of business."

Dr. Gulick states that 16 per cent. of all who drop out before graduation do so because of ill health. And those with such physical defects as poor hearing, poor seeing, adenoids, decayed teeth, etc., progress 9 per cent. more slowly than others. "It is wasteful to the State and inhuman to the child to have his progress in school blocked because he has some removable defect that prevents his seeing, hearing, breathing, or chewing."

One child out of every four he says attends school irregularly—that is, less than three-fourths of the school year—and it is not to be expected that they can master work in that way. London has almost stopped this leak in its schools, so have also many of our smaller cities, through: (1) a school-census which accurately locates every child of school age, and (2) so administering the school laws that all absentees are immediately and effectively followed up. Transfers of pupils from one school to another in a large city need careful watching.

Dr. Gulick makes some statements in regard to why children withdraw from school that might well be questioned. He says: "At present our courses of study are not fitted to the abilities of the average pupil, but to those of the unusually bright one." In New York he says he found that for every child making rapid progress there were eight making slow progress. "It is probably a conservative statement to say that in the average city there are at least ten times as many children making slow progress as there are making rapid progress."

It is undoubtedly of prime importance that we get the child to come to school, to attend regularly, and to remain until he "graduates," at least in the fundamentals of a complete education. The most fruitful causes for early withdrawal, however, are not so much the ones stated by Dr. Gulick as they are the stress of home-circumstances, and the fact that both parents and pupils need the additional appeal of school-work which tends more directly towards increased earning capacity and preparation for the life-work to be taken up when the pupil leaves school.

(d) CARE OF THE HEALTH OF PUPILS.—There are two most useful things for all youth to learn—two very practical things upon which happiness so largely depends.

They are the careful use of money and the simple rules of good health; how to spend and how to live. The young must be taught these things if the other lessons are to have their maximum of good. The tremendous daily economic loss from absence and lowered efficiency due to sickness, the blighted prospects due to physical defects easy to remedy, and the immeasurable social loss due to the irritability and hasty action of a subnormal physical condition, without any reference to death, and pain, and deprivation as they follow in the wake of preventable disease—all these things emphasize the importance of giving every possible consideration to instruction in the laws of health.

Losses from
Poor Health

Not that this instruction has not been given in the schools, but that it must be given in a way that will more fully affect the life and the environment of the life. We are coming to a fuller realization each year that much of our health-work in the schools has been lost because it has lacked unity and system and inspiring daily application. To give unity and system to this important phase of education in a community, it must be placed in charge of some one person. Where the teachers in a system of schools are well trained and interested, the work will be well done; but it will still lack the unity of aim and method which makes it most effective for all in the community. There are varying ideas and systems in physical education just as there are in other phases of educational philosophy and practice; hence, there must be some one person to weigh and to recommend for adoption as well as to inspect and to guide after adoption. Besides, continual and profitable enthusiasm is always dependent upon a leader.

Need of
Physical
Overseer

And this overseer in matters pertaining to the physical child is as necessary, in the fundamental things, to the rural districts as he is to the urban communities. Until quite recently there has been a strange sense of security in regard to the physical well-being of the country child. And yet, nowhere are conditions quite so careless and unhygienic and the lack of appreciation of physical defects and dangers quite so marked. The sporadic efforts, being made here and there, to arouse interest and to unite convenient rural communities into systematic efforts, need commendation and support.

Health Day.—Dr. James M. Anders, of Philadelphia, has suggested a special "Health Day" in the schools for the purpose of providing a "supreme moment for impressing valuable lessons in individual, personal, and municipal hygiene upon the minds of the rising genera-

tion, so that children would fully appreciate the value of health before reaching adult life." Upon the day specially dedicated to the subject, such additional influences as lectures by prominent scientists, and notices from the pulpit and in the press, could be brought to bear for the purpose of supplementing the work of the school and of giving the subject added interest and the weight of additional influence. Pupils could also prepare papers and illustrative work according to their ability.

The day could be made to include the double purpose of a "Health Day" for the pupils and for their homes and a "Cleaning-up Week," for the municipality.

The following subjects would furnish profitable matter for consideration:

- Food, its Preparation and Mastication.
- Necessity for Pure Air, including Ventilation.
- Drinking Water—Supply, Purification, Danger of Contamination.
- Necessity for Personal Cleanliness.
- The Flies and Mosquitoes as Carriers of Germs.
- Value of Public Squares and Playgrounds.
- Proper Physical Exercises and Games.
- A Sane Fourth of July.
- Disease Germs and how They Get into the Body.
- Influenza and Colds.
- Tuberculosis and its Treatment.
- The Disgusting and Dangerous Habit of Spitting.

The altruistic idea of being careful about the welfare of others as well as of our own health could be greatly emphasized during the observance of such a day.

Play.—Community interest is the second essential to success in these physical efforts. This is necessary if the games and sports, through which the physical child finds freedom of expression, are to have the definiteness of aim that appeals as nothing else can to the young mind. The object of these games and sports is to awaken a manly and womanly rivalry, and to develop and to foster the physical vigor and courage that furnish such

a strong foundation both for strength of mind and strength of character.

We have heard much, during the past year, from Ex-President Roosevelt and others, about how our modern civilization tends towards softness and indolence, and of the way in which we are losing the stimulus of earlier conditions which, though often harsh and soul-trying, did demand physical strength and courage as well as readiness of both mind and heart. If we are to retain anything like the influence of "frontier conditions," we must find worthy substitutes for hardship and fighting aggressiveness. And nothing more peaceful and effective has yet presented itself, for such training of the young, than the school gymnastics and the games and sports naturally associated with them.

Play and
Manly
Qualities

As to whether, as is sometimes charged, these things shall make our girls unladylike and our boys noisy and rough will depend, just as do all other outward acts, upon the spirit and character back of them. If they do serve to develop a commendable spirit of fair play, if they teach courage, if they lead boys and girls to submerge their individual interests in the common interest, if they cultivate the habit of deciding quickly and acting promptly in emergencies, if they form habits of self-reliance, and if they serve to inculcate active moral obligations of politeness, cheerfulness, and good will, there can be nothing either "unladylike" or "boisterous" that needs to be feared.

No part of the educational problem has received more intelligent attention or a greater impetus during the past year than this phase of physical education. This is evidenced by the large number of places in which games and sports have been organized and by the phenomenal growth of the playground movement.

Every tendency indicates that the future school will regard it as fully as necessary to provide a space in

which the child can enjoy free play, as it will be to provide a desk and bench at which he can work. For

freedom of play, the space must be large enough for either individual or group plays without the interference of walls, fences, etc.

The Future
School

It should also be out of doors where there are sunlight and fresh air. If it must be indoors, there should be the minimum of dust with the maximum of fresh air and light. But the space must be provided; for play is, for the child, nature's greatest educator. It not only provides the exercise that brings growth and strength of body but also reveals to the child its possibilities for action.

If the child does not of its own initiative undertake things in play that tax its powers, it needs to be encouraged to do so. It must not be disappointed through lack of success in its play. It must succeed in its skating, its swimming, and its coasting. It must be able to make kites that fly and windmills and water-wheels that run. To this end it needs help and guidance in its play.

One of the most valuable recent social developments is along the line of encouraging children to help each other in their plays. This builds up sympathy in the helper and confidence in the one who is helped. There is need to build up this confidence of power in play to prepare for the time when confidence in power is needed for more serious affairs. Emphasis is also being laid upon the culture value of play. But this must not replace the element of sturdy contest in the severer games. The boy must be both manly and gentlemanly in his play. Both will help him towards successful living when he takes his place among his fellow men.

Athletics.—One of the chief benefits of athletics is that they supply what Dr. Eliot calls "a new and effective motive for resisting all sins which weaken or cripple the body." Because of this, they are serving a useful purpose especially where there might be a leaning

towards the softness and indolence that both injure and degrade. But there has been an inclination towards professionalism in athletics which many deplore. With professionalism naturally comes a tendency towards intense but narrow training and a spirit to win regardless of the fairness of the play. The demand for such things as a more open game in football shows that the public now is determined to see fairness in play.

Whether athletic contests should take the form of great public spectacles is being questioned by many. This view is reflected in a report on the subject of sports which was prepared by one of the secondary school teachers who served in a recent exchange with a German teacher. He says: "English and American sport, viewed from a distance, excites the interest of many German educators. Those familiar with the evils of football and other games of questionable value for physical culture cannot help seeing many advantages in the German system." He then described this system in substance as follows:

Athletics as
Public
Spectacles

The German nation has for years been interested in athletics in the best sense of the term and has provided in its schools for the national physical training of both sexes and for all ages. The Prussian pupils, especially the boys, have better opportunities for this training than most Americans, because of the thoroughly trained teachers of gymnastics, the more frequent exercise periods, the hourly recesses, the out-of-door play, the variety of athletic games, and the completeness of the equipment of the exercise halls.

The
German
Ideal

The way in which the Germans differ most from us, however, is that they rarely have interscholastic contests. When they do have such contests they involve individuals rather than groups, and are tests of skill, courage, and endurance—and especially are not great public spectacles.

The variety of the German games will be appreciated from the fact that the boys learn as many as twenty-one different ball-games; and these are all such as tend to make them physically alert and to give them high physical tone. Especially in the apparatus work of the gymnasium are the German boys well drilled. On the whole, while they attend school six days of the week, start at least an hour earlier each day than the American boy, breakfast on a roll or two, and study hard at school, their physical condition and general health are good, although many of them come from the less robust element of the population.

That football, as the most representative American college sport, lacks the elements of real sportsmanship, that its players are athletic "grinds," and that it is not worth the time and money spent on it are some of the opinions expressed by *Old Penn*, the official alumni journal of the University of Pennsylvania. After declaring that it will not be surprising if changes in the rules, no matter how sweeping, will shortly be acknowledged to be ineffective in getting at the root of the evil, it says:

"It is always a source of regret to the lover of true sport that the most important game in American college life should be so deficient in the elements of real sportsmanship. It is a misfortune, he feels, that what college men glorify most as the highest form of amateur athletics should in reality be on a level with professional baseball, and in one sense with prize fighting, and that it should serve chiefly as a spectacle, presented by a score of men, for the delectation of idle thousands.

"Whether or not the game be played for money, American football is, in the true sense of the word, professional. Not that the players or spectators go to the field more interested in the outcome than in the actual game, for such, we believe, is not the case; but that men put through a long and severe course of training by coaches whose aim is to develop, simply for the season,

the most efficient team-work, are necessarily specialists, and in this sense professional.

"The element of spontaneity, the life of true sport as of art and of wit, is reduced to a minimum; and instead of well-rounded men or versatile athletes, who enter the games for the sheer love of play, we too frequently have what might more accurately be described as a species of athletic 'grind.'"

Medical Inspection.—George H. Martin has ventured the statement that "a community which has not provided through its proper authority for a thorough-going medical inspection of its schools is guilty of criminal negligence." If, as has been claimed, at least seven out of every ten children need some form of medical treatment—three out of every ten for the eyes; two out of every ten for breathing troubles; and seven out of every ten, in addition to their other physical defects, for bad teeth—Mr. Martin's charge is fully warranted. Leonard P. Ayres estimates the annual waste through retardation, discouragement, and dropping out of school because of remediable physical defects at \$12,000,000. But the handicaps that these physical defects place upon the life are their most serious results.

The systematic inspection of school children by competent physicians, should both discover these defects and make possible the remedy for them. But it should also do more. It can stop the schools from being a means of spreading contagious diseases. It can and should see that class-rooms are properly ventilated. And we are learning that this means not only a constant supply of pure air but for the sake of its stimulating effect a change of temperature at least every hour by a raising of the windows while the children march or do exercises.

It should also see that the building and the pupils are clean. When pupils march, if there is dust on the floors, it will rise to a height of several feet. No wonder

the children contract colds and even more serious troubles when uncleanly floor conditions are permitted.

School Nurses. — Parents are often indifferent or misunderstand and, hence, do not attempt to carry out the suggestions made by the school physicians. This renders the services of school-nurses of great value, and an increasing number of cities are paying for them from the public funds. These nurses visit the home and in a judicious way follow up the recommendations of the medical inspector, for the purpose of seeing that they are carried out. They are also on hand at the school to attend to the minor accident cases and to continue treatment that can be attended to in the school itself. As these nurses are almost always women, they can also give valuable oversight and advice to the older girls in the rest-room which should be found in every large school. Without such work as may be done by nurses who devote all of their time to one or more schools, much of the effectiveness of medical inspection is lost.

Children's Lunches.—A great deal of attention during the past few years has been given by the school to proper nutrition of children. Investigation has revealed the fact that many come breakfastless to school, or have eaten food that is not nutritious and which is often even injurious, and that if left to themselves they make injudicious choice of things for their lunch. To remedy these defects many efforts, principally on the part of social and philanthropic organizations, have been made to furnish nutritious school lunches at a nominal cost and to see that the proper supervision is exercised over what may be brought or bought for lunch.

The efforts in this direction during the past year have met with gratifying success. While more careful investigation has revealed the fact that there are fewer cases of actual want than was at first supposed, and that the extra-frugal habits of some parents are leading them to take advantage of "penny lunches" for their children,

unquestionably the movement is inculcating a wiser choice of food and relieving many cases of actual distress.

Overstudy.—Although the number of hours actually required for school-work in America is lower than in Germany and many other European countries, the charge is often made that our boys and girls are the victims of overstudy. The direct charge is that the number and variety of subjects in which pupils are required to perfect themselves tend to make them nervous and overwrought. These charges, especially since some of them have been made by physicians of wide reputation, have undoubtedly made educators and school administrators more careful in the matter. But aside from the need of exercising great caution in regard to the amount, the kind, and the hours of homework required, many are inclining to the thought that the School is often unjustly blamed.

American parents are often unwisely ambitious and weakly indulgent. They permit their youthful sons and daughters to become absorbed in social diversion, to remain up late at night when nature demands rest, and to become interested in half a dozen things when the one interest of getting a good education is all that the growing body will support. Soon follows an upsetting of the systematic order of things and the rush and worry that bear hard upon the young nerves. Hence, this is a problem for the Home fully as much as it is a problem for the School.

Open-Air Schools.—Dr. Wm. A. Evans, pathologist of the Lincoln Park Zoological Garden of Chicago, from autopsies performed upon the monkeys that died in that institution—and there was the usual large percentage of deaths of these animals that accompanies the artificial conditions of captivity—discovered that 80 per cent. of these deaths were due to tuberculosis. This was despite the fact that the Superintendent had most carefully and persistently endeavored to reproduce

the temperature of their natural habitat and had sheltered them in the winter time from contact with cold air. As a result of this mortality and the general physical degeneracy going on among the living monkeys, Dr. Evans several years ago suggested the experiment of requiring five of the monkeys, that were already in a stage of feebleness, timidity, and feverousness, to remain from the summer time through the winter under practically out-door conditions. The result was a surprise to the Superintendent; for the feeble, timid, feverous monkeys, that had been mangy and almost devoid of hair, and were in the habit of sitting shivering in the corners of their cages, were by springtime covered with thick, brown, furry coats of hair, their muscles had grown strong and agile, they ate eagerly, and they "manifested an increased desire for the favorite simian pastime—fighting." In the meantime the usual number of in-door monkeys had died.

Dr. Evans was naturally greatly impressed with the results of his experiment, and when the Mayor of the City appointed him as Health Commissioner he at once began a vigorous campaign for more healthful street cars, to compel the removal of underground disease-feeding bakeries, and better ventilation of theatres, especially the five and ten cent ones where the matter had received practically no consideration. Even the high-priced hotels and restaurants, with their basements and sub-basements where so much of the cooking and food preparing was done, came in for their share of reformation. But most interesting of all was his campaign for better-ventilated school buildings—a campaign that has led to a supplanting of the hot, dry, disease-laden atmosphere of most of the Chicago school-rooms with moist, pure air, and to a strong movement towards the natural out-door air-conditions even in winter for some of them. A school for tuberculous children has been established on the roof of one of the

Better
Ventilated
Buildings

Hull House buildings by the United Charities of Chicago. Here a score of children, already affected or threatened with the dread disease, receive their instruction in the open air even in the bleakest days of winter. Well protected in close-fitting Eskimo suits, these boys and girls are being *oxygenated* and *ozoned* back to health and life, and are making exceptional progress in their lessons. The movement is spreading and from all over the country come protests and regulations against high temperatures in class-rooms and in favor of frequent opening of windows even in zero weather.

The open-air school and the open-air conditions of course demand warm clothing and a judicious teacher, but the tendency to bring natural atmospherical conditions into every class-room and, as far as possible, to maintain them there, is not a mere fad. The coming years may witness a tremendous returning to where we began, with out-of-door schools as they were known in Greece more than two thousand years ago.

Boston has an out-door school for tubercular patients in Franklin Park. The school is on the roof of the Refectory Building and, during last winter, was attended by more than 100 pupils varying in age from 4 to 16. Here, through all conditions of weather, these children, who were definitely pronounced to be in the early stages of tuberculosis, gained in flesh, in healthful appearance, and in spirits at the same time that they made creditable progress in knowledge.

The covered colonnade which runs around three sides of the roof is divided up into open class-rooms which are protected by canvas drops in case of a driving storm. The children, well protected by wraps, caps and mittens, and with the entire lower part of the body encased in a sort of sleeping-bag while they are at work, sit and work at the regular desks and tables. The school-work is more frequently broken by breathing exercises, singing, or games than in the regular school-

rooms, owing to the greater need of stimulating exercise, especially in extremely cold weather. The work hours are almost entirely restricted to the forenoon, because of the need of more rest than is demanded by the physically normal child. For two hours after the noon meal of food high in heat-producing qualities, the children rest, and often sleep, in well-blanketed rocking chairs placed in the uncovered portion of the roof. The children receive similar nourishment to that of the noon meal at two other periods during the day. Before each meal, the pupils are taught in a practical way the value of cleanliness and the extreme care necessary on the part of consumptives.

A trained nurse takes temperatures once each day and weighs each child once a week. Every fortnight the children are taken to the Boston Consumptives Hospital for careful examination. Their teeth and eyes also receive due attention. The home is also looked after, so that parents may be made to understand the importance of proper home-conditions for the children, both during and after their out-of-door schooling.

Providence has met with equal success in its out-of-door school, and in both cities even advanced cases have shown remarkable gains, while a large percentage of pupils have been sufficiently restored to make it safe to return them to the regular class-rooms. Although the physical gain in weight, in color, in lowering of temperature, and in the relaxing of nervous tension so characteristic of tuberculosis, is very marked, the most remarkable thing is the mental stimulus that comes from this out-door life to pupils who are almost invariably dull in the regular class-room. This more vigorous mentality is in itself of extreme value in hastening recovery. As there is a belief that many of the tubercular troubles are contracted or developed during school-life, the importance of the out-door school movement is evident.

Out-of-Door
Schools in
Providence

The successes of the out-door schools already established have been so great that not only are many others for the benefit of consumptive children, especially in large cities, under consideration, but there is also a movement to provide one or more out-of-door classrooms in every large school building, for the benefit of anæmic children.

In an investigation recently conducted in the schools of Stockholm, Sweden, 1.61 per cent. of the pupils were found to be tubercular. If these figures hold good for the United States, each city would have at least 30 such children, between the ages of 8 and 15, to provide for, to every 25,000 inhabitants. The beneficial results obtained in the eleven such schools already opened in the United States, combined with the experience which has been thoroughly tested out in the open-air schools of Germany and England, warrant any provision which will give a thorough education to these unfortunates, while at the same time safeguarding the other children and effecting a large percentage of permanent cures among the tubercular pupils themselves.

Report of the Bureau of Municipal Research. — The recent bulletin, "What 360 Cities Are Doing for the Physical Welfare of School Children," which was issued by the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City, shows that of these: 211 are furnishing medical inspection for infectious and contagious diseases; 171 are attending to defective vision, defective hearing, adenoids, hypertrophied tonsils, and defects of breathing; 119 are providing for dental attention to the teeth of the school children; 58 provide school nurses, who serve at the schools and visit the houses to instruct the parents or to see that the advice of the school physician is carried out; and in an increasing number of cities, provision is being made in out-of-door schools, held in a variety of out-of-door places, for children threatened with tuberculosis or who are in an anæmic condition.

(e) SPECIAL TYPES OF PUPILS.—*Retardation*.—School men have been somewhat startled by the conclusions reached by Leonard P. Ayres of the Russell Sage Foundation and of Professor Edward L. Thorndike of Teachers College, Columbia University, in regard to the large percentage of pupils who have to repeat the work of one or more grades as they pass through the elementary school. As, by Mr. Ayres' methods of determination, this retardation in some grades regularly reaches almost 60 per cent., and as, presumably, much of it is avoidable, this investigator in particular has placed before the public a most serious charge against the efficiency of our public school system. To add to the embarrassment, the interesting and able Physical Director of the New York Schools, Dr. Luther H. Gulick, who is also a member of the Russell Sage Foundation, has ventured the assertion that, taking the schools of the country as a whole, there are ten pupils who are behind time in the grades to every one who is ahead of the grade to which he would normally belong.

Time is one of the most valuable assets of child-life; and we are coming to realize that the child has an inalienable right to have his days filled with the highest possibilities. No wonder that such assertions of lost time are stirring up investigation to determine the validity of such serious charges of educational waste. Two of these investigations are reported in the June issue of the *Educational Review* as follows:

Frank P. Bachman, Assistant Superintendent of the Cleveland Schools, takes issue with the methods of arriving at their conclusions employed by Dr. Thorndike and Mr. Ayres. He also points out a great
A Different
Opinion variation in the conclusions of each because of the difference in their methods. So far as the Cleveland Schools are concerned, for the years 1908-9, the percentage of retardation in the eighth grade as determined by Dr. Thorndike's method would have

been 37.6 per cent., while by Mr. Ayres' method it would have been 56 per cent.; and both of them are wide of the actual retardation, even if it be based, as in their general plan, upon the age of admittance to the elementary course.

During the same year, by Mr. Ayres' method, the number of grade-repeaters in the Cleveland Schools would have totalled 12,059, whereas only 8665 out of a total enrollment of 69,764 failed to secure promotion. This would make Mr. Ayres' number nearly 40 per cent. too high. Hence, Supt. Bachman concludes: "In view of the wide divergence of these two methods in fixing upon the probable number of beginners and in view of certain fallacies that might be cited against using this number as a basis of estimating the percentage of retention, it is probable that little reliance can be placed upon either Dr. Thorndike's or Mr. Ayres' method as a means of determining the amount of elimination in a given system of schools."

Professor Louis B. Blau, also of Teachers College, from a detailed study of six schools in New York City, arrives at the following conclusions:

1. That the migratory tendency of pupils, as well as the tendency to enter grades beyond the first, greatly affects the appearance of retardation. In one school he found only one-fifth of the grammar grade pupils had entered its kindergarten or first grade; the other four-fifths represented transferred pupils or pupils who had been admitted to higher grades. In another school, he found in the grammar grades as many as three-fourths who had started in its kindergarten or first grade.

2. The usual custom is to regard 5 years 11 months as the normal entrance age for the beginners (First Year Pupils). Using this as a basis for determining "over-ageness," he finds the result would be too high as compared with the reality in the district studied;

Prof. Blau's
Investigation

for the usual entrance age there was almost 7 years and almost 50 per cent. of the pupils were "over-age" at the time of their entrance to the first grade. (How greatly this would affect an estimate of retardation, if based upon age alone, can readily be seen.)

3. From careful investigation of the number of pupils who had failed to secure promotion one or more times, Professor Blau found that almost one-half of those who began their schooling in a first grade and passed through to an eighth were never left back at all; one-fourth of them had failed once; one-fourth twice; only 2 per cent. three times, etc. The lowest percentage of retardation was found in the first and second grades. This may be accounted for partly by the necessity of making room for new pupils, the vast majority of all applicants for admittance being for these grades. The highest percentage of "hold-overs" was in the seventh grades. This was, no doubt, the result of a desire to drop out and go to work and the tendency to indifference to school work in these grades.

Professor Blau admits that his conclusions for these six schools vary greatly from the commonly accepted impression that retardation is more prevalent in the primary grades than in the higher grades, and also from the often expressed opinion that the average pupil is left back at least twice during his elementary career; but he sees no reason why they should not be typical of the conditions in other schools.

All of which suggests that we need the kind of school-record that will go with the pupil during his entire elementary course and which will show, in a succinct way, his life-history in so far as the school is concerned. We could then easily and intelligently get at the facts in regard to this matter of retardation and not be under the temptation, for the sake of convenience, of adopting a "method of estimation" in connection with a thing of such vital importance. At all events, it would be

unfortunate if the public should come to estimate the value of the work of the school by the amount of retardation, if this is secured by a method based solely upon the age of the pupil.

It is true that many children whose age is above the average of their grade are apt to leave school before a desirable training is completed and that, therefore, age is significant in education. But the fact still remains that many "over-age" pupils do complete the course—some on time and some of them even with creditable records—and that many "retarded" pupils either started late, usually because of good home conditions, or have been held back by their own relatively low physical development. Hence, we may eventually give the term *retardation* a much more restricted use or adopt some other form of nomenclature which is not so unfairly suggestive.

Backward Pupils.—Classes for the exceptional child have been in use in the cities of many of the European countries for a number of years. They have probably reached their best development, however, in Germany. In the United States their establishment is recent and as yet the work largely experimental. Decided progress in this work has, however, been made during the past year, and several things in connection with it have already become evident. One of these is that careful examination by a medical expert is necessary for a wise selection of pupils to receive such instruction. This inspection should exclude pupils who are clearly unfit for these classes. As yet, it cannot always be determined whether pupils will be more benefited by this instruction than by working in a regular class-room, or whether the intelligence is of a sufficiently high type to make it worth while to place them in backward classes. The medical examination, however, does give a good working basis and, under expert instruction, it soon becomes evident what children should not be retained in such classes.

Experience has shown that, without a medical examination preceding admittance, many pupils are placed in these classes who are clearly institutional cases or subjects for private instruction, because they can never be made self-directing, self-sustaining members of society, and only those who can would seem to have a claim upon the public school.

Because the work must be so largely individual, many think that the number of pupils in these classes

for "exceptional children" should not exceed twelve. With such pupils the need for individual instruction is especially noticeable in the

teaching of the common school branches. The elements of these should, of course, be included in their courses of study, although much of the work must be along the

lines of manual and vocational training, with especially great care in regard to physical exercises for the purpose of correcting abnormal

conditions of the body. Exercises and games which are calculated to improve the muscles and to give better nervous co-ordination and control are peculiarly valuable. Recent developments have demonstrated that gardening is of special value as an occupation for the weak-minded and wayward. A plot of ground and its possibilities furnish a concrete stimulus that rarely fails to arouse interest and that usually causes the periods of depression and of abnormal mental and moral action to disappear. Such plots also furnish exercise and life out-of-doors and this is, of itself, a stimulus to healthier activities.

The sessions should also be shorter than in the regular schools, for such pupils are incapable of long-continued effort in any one direction. Their

stage of development, no matter what their age, is rarely above that of the smallest child. This, especially at first, makes their attention wholly that of the involuntary type; hence, the work-periods should

be comparatively short and well interspersed with rest and recreation periods. As many of these pupils necessarily come a long distance, there should be but one session each day. If the session continues beyond the noon hour, a lunch, which the pupils assist in preparing and serving in the school, should be provided. The largest proportion of such pupils come from homes where they receive improper or insufficient nourishment and this school lunch thus proves of great benefit.

Exceptional care must be exercised in regard to the morally deficient among these exceptional children. Because of their lack of self-control and their not having passed beyond the imitative stage of ^{The Morally Deficient} development, such pupils are easily led astray by vicious examples. Hence, grave moral deficiencies in a pupil, or the less grave, if they do not readily yield to treatment, should lead to his prompt removal. An institution in which the proper segregation and continuous oversight can be exercised is a more suitable and hopeful place for him. This of course does not refer to the ordinary "truants" and "incorrigibles."

Ungraded Classes. — A number of additional cities have, during the past year, adopted the plan of establishing "ungraded classes" in connection with their larger elementary schools. These are proving of great service in school centers having a large foreign contingent, and are showing good results in connection with the work of those who are below the normal in mental alertness or in regularity or obedience. These classes were originally intended for those who are considerably older than the average pupil of the grade; but their use has been extended until now they are used as: (a) introductory classes for young foreigners unfamiliar with English; (b) for pupils coming from other places where the teaching or grading is different; (c) for those who have missed a great deal of time from school or who have had poor educational advantages; (d) for truants and

incorrigibles who formerly were in "special schools" and are even yet in these special schools in many places; and (e) in general, for all whose work is not up to standard or who would receive more benefit by being at least temporarily taught in such classes than if taught in regular classes.

The movement from these ungraded classes to the regular classes should be easily accomplished when the pupil's standing justifies it. The movement from the regular class to the ungraded class should also be free. Care should be exercised to have it understood that no stigma attaches to the pupils of these ungraded classes. One of the reasons given for abolishing the "special school" was the question of stigma. The main reason for establishing these ungraded classes is to furnish increased opportunity. They give opportunity to boys and girls to make up for lost time and for deficiencies, thus affording them a chance to be restored to the grade corresponding to their age. They also give increased opportunity to the teacher and classes that have been or would be hampered by their presence.

The value of ungraded classes depends very largely upon the skill, insight, sympathy, and good judgment of the teacher. Much depends also upon the judgment of the principal in selecting pupils for these classes, and much upon the way in which they are assigned to them or returned to the regular rooms. The ungraded class should, of course, be small as compared with the regular classes, and there should be both liberty and ample provision for the kinds of work that make the strongest appeals to the interest and confidence of the pupils.

Incorrigibles, Including Truants.—The two largest and most successful schools in the world for the rescue and education of unfortunate children are the Barnardo Homes in London and the Rauhe Haus (Rough House) in Hamburg. Both are charitable and both are known all over the world. They have saved thousands of

unhappy children from ruin and made of them happy and successful men and women, a help and a blessing instead of a burden and a curse.

The Rauhe Haus was founded, in 1833, by Johann Heinrich Wichern, out of pity for unfortunates with whom he had come into contact as a charity visitor to their homes. The first building occupied was a small rough house (hence possibly its name) on the outskirts of Hamburg. Moving into this with his mother and sister he soon had twelve boys, all the house would hold, under his charge. The youngest was five and the oldest eighteen. The oldest was hardly able to speak and one but twelve years old had already been convicted of ninety-two thefts. Of course the neighbors shook their heads. Wichern at first attempted to teach them only the three fundamentals but, when spring came, he added gardening. Although the days were filled with work, while resting and in the evening the good man taught them to sing and told them stories from German history and about the great Creator of the wonderful world all about them. Gradually all thought of opposition bred in their hearts from the previously hard environments was overcome and his success was assured.

With his success came the necessary assistance in his work and the addition of the buildings needed to accommodate the rapidly growing demand for admittance. So well did Wichern demonstrate his ability to call forth the possibilities in the lives of these waifs of society, and so enthusiastic did he become in their behalf, that the Prussian Government finally appointed him as General Superintendent of all of its penal and correctional institutions. To-day his name is honored wherever his work is known and he himself is deeply revered by all who have come under the benign influence of his great philanthropic heart.

There are three propositions with respect to incorrigibles and truants that seem firmly established:

1. That really incorrigible pupils must not be instructed in connection with the normal types of pupils or in connection with any of the other special types. The double reason for this is that incorrigibles often possess qualities of strong leadership and they usually require a different type of appeal in order to secure good work from them. While this appeal may not differ in point of severity, it often must in other respects.

2. That, because of the danger of branding as incorrigibles boys who are only misunderstood or injudiciously handled either at home or in school, great wisdom and care need to be exercised before they are separated from their fellows.

3. The home of the incorrigible is usually an unfit place in which to expect his reform; hence, there is imperative need for his more or less permanent removal, during the period of reform, to an institution in which he may live. Such institutions are usually known as parental schools, and they have already been established in New York, Chicago, Boston, Cleveland, Cincinnati, and a few other places.

There are also several State institutions that are doing most excellent work for these unfortunates who, because of a hopelessly inferior environment or through a viciously inclined heredity, are in danger of becoming a criminal charge upon the community. The most promising reports are coming from the institutions that are located away from the allurements of the city and which present full opportunity for learning trades or for tilling the soil. There seems to be especial merit in the institutions which are located on farms.

Teachers of Exceptional Children. — "Some of the characteristics of a successful teacher in any of these lines are an even and sunny temperament; infinite patience; quiet tones; tact and firmness; resourcefulness; kind and sympathetic management; appreciation

of effort; love for the unfortunates; and abiding faith in the work. These teachers must be interested students of the problem before them. They must read the latest and best literature on the subject, and visit other schools and institutions where this particular work is carried on. As Dr. Johnstone puts it, 'We need forward teachers for backward pupils.' " (See an interesting article in *Education* for September, 1910, on "Instruction of Exceptional Children in New York City," by Assistant Superintendent Andrew W. Edson.)

(f) THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS (see Chapter VI).

(g) THE COST OF EDUCATION.—The old arguments for liberality in expenditure for educational purposes, which were based on the gains in earning capacity resulting from education and the larger margin of profit left to the community and the State as a result of this, are being replaced by the idea that education, and all that it costs in time and in money, must be regarded as a social investment whose benefits cannot be measured in mere dollars and cents. From this standpoint, probably the most forcible argument is the negative one that lies along the line of trying to imagine conditions as they would exist if the School, with all that it has accomplished and all that it stands for, could be wiped out of existence.

The cost of education is increasing but not so rapidly as the demands that are being made upon it would warrant. The average entire cost per pupil throughout the United States was, according to the report of the Commissioner of Education, in 1908, \$30.55. This is such a small amount as compared with the cost of tuition in private schools that it speaks well of the economy with which the schools in general are managed. *The Public School is the one utility of the people that is carried on more economically than a similar private enterprise.* That there must be a greater average expenditure, if the work under modern conditions is to be done as effec-

tively as possible, is becoming quite evident. That the people are both ready and anxious to bear all necessary expense in order to give their sons and daughters the best possible chance for success and happiness, is in accord with the history and genius of the American people.

Tabular Statement.—The table on page 129 presents some of the facts in regard to the various items of cost.

The School Budget.—The one document that shows what the city authorities intend to do for the child is the School Budget. As this question comes up for consideration but once a year, it is important to every citizen having an interest in a school child to see that the facts in regard to the financial needs of the schools are properly prepared and clearly presented when the Budget is under consideration. Notwithstanding its importance, the School Budget is but one of a number of municipal interests that must be considered annually by the "City Fathers;" hence, the importance of presenting only real needs, possible things, and of doing it clearly, specifically, and with the unity of effort that its importance warrants.

The recent display in connection with the Child Welfare Campaign in New York of the things needed by the school child, as well as their cost, was an effective effort, because of its concreteness and definiteness, to make the public as well as their representatives realize the needs of the schools.

(h) SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.—*Inefficiency of.*—At the Indianapolis meeting of School Superintendents, held in March, 1910, Supt. Frank E. Spalding, of Newton, Mass., maintained that the administrative machinery of our school work is the weakest part, and advised courses of instruction for the benefit of those seeking or already engaged in this branch of the educational service. These courses should be established in our best universities and should be open to the school trustees,

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS		1898	1908	Increase, per cent.
Expended per pupil (on av. attend.)—entire U. S. . . .		\$18.76	\$30.55	63
Expended per pupil (on av. attend.)—highest in North Atlantic Div.	New York	51.26		
Expended per pupil (on av. attend.)—highest in South Atlantic Div.	Dist. of Col.	51.24		
Expended per pupil (on av. attend.)—highest in South Central Div.	Louisiana	19.92		
Expended per pupil (on av. attend.)—highest in North Central Div.	North Dakota	47.41		
Expended per pupil (on av. attend.)—highest in Western Div.	Nevada	72.34		
Expended for salaries of teachers.		\$124,192,270	\$219,780,123	77
Expended for sites and buildings.		31,415,233	73,640,408	134
Expended for other purposes.		38,685,408	77,923,879	102
Expended, entire amount.		194,292,911	371,344,410	91
Expended per pupil (on total population).		2.67	4.27	60
Raised by local taxation—average for United States			67.91 per cent.	
Raised by local taxation—highest amount.	Massa.		94.39 per cent.	
Raised by local taxation—lowest amount.	Mississippi		10.86 per cent.	
Monthly salaries of teachers—average for U. S.			Men, \$62.35 . . .	Gen. av., \$53.88
			Women, \$51.61	
Monthly salaries of teachers—highest average.	Mass.		Men, \$155.95 . .	Gen. av., 67.93
			Women, \$59.58	
Monthly salaries of teachers—lowest average.	Maine		Men, \$39.84 . . .	Gen. av., 31.65
			Women, \$30.68	
Per cent. of male teachers in the entire United States (1870) 41 per cent.	Arkansas (1870),		(1908) 21 per cent.	
Where highest per cent. of male teachers in total teaching force.	75.6 per cent.		(1908) 47.8 per cent.	
Where lowest per cent. of male teachers in total teaching force.	Connecticut (1870), 22 per cent.		(1908) 6.5 per cent.	

superintendents, principals, and all others interested in administrative work. He would have such subjects as school sites, school buildings, sanitation, text-books, attendance, and the business side of administration receive careful consideration in such a course.

That our public schools have not always been administered in a wise, economical, and unselfish manner is well known. Direct local representation of the will of the people through school trustees, boards of control, etc., is in harmony with our republican form of government, and, in the days of unprofessional school-work, it was on the whole a satisfactory arrangement. But the continuation of this direct control in all school matters, after a science of pedagogy and expert school supervision and school architecture began to develop, has probably done more than any one single influence towards hindering the progress of the School.

Hence, the marked tendency of boards of control to give all professional matters into the hands of experts promises great things for the child. Many of the following charges which, within the past few years, have been laid at the doors of the older form of control, should now rapidly disappear:

1. They (school trustees, boards of education, etc.) are unduly influenced and hampered in their administration of the schools by business, social, and political affiliations.

2. They are unwilling to devote the same time, care, and foresight to the affairs of the schools of which they are the custodians that they devote to their own private interests.

3. They are not qualified to administer intelligently in many of the school affairs over which they assume absolute and direct control.

4. Through jealousy of their prerogatives as representatives of the people, they are unwilling to seek or

Unwise
Adminis-
tration

listen to expert advice on problems demanding professional skill and insight.

5. They are unbusiness-like and disheartening in (a) their failure to recognize and reward individual merit or to warn firmly or discharge promptly in cases of inefficiency; (b) their failure to do the best possible for both teachers and pupils with the funds available; and (c) their failure to render simple, clear, and business-like accounting to the community of the expenditures and needs of the schools.

6. As these boards of control are usually too large and unwieldy for their purpose, they are apt, either by rule, or by practice, to divide themselves up into committees (with all of the attendant evils of "committee-rule"), thus tending to have most of the business of the board known to only a minimum number of its members. Through the indifference of the many, it also comes to pass that a few of the most ambitious or truly interested soon become the recognized leaders to whose domination the entire board submits and to which few, as a matter of fact, the board, be it ever so large, is practically reduced.

7. While there are worthy and notable exceptions, both as they pertain to individual members and to entire bodies, on the whole the administration of such boards of control is so haphazard, weak, and inefficient that if the public they represent fully appreciated their pretenses, their indifference, and their yieldings to selfish interests, they would not be tolerated as guardians of the highest interests of the helpless children.

This is quite an array of serious charges which, under a rapidly increasing knowledge of wiser methods, the stimulation of an aroused public interest and of a more conscientious regard for the sacred trust of administering to the welfare of the children of a community, should now rapidly disappear. Already, in a number of places, boards of school control have been reduced to a size

which permits all of the members to sit around a table and to take part in all of the general business transacted, as well as to hear the reports and recommendations of the experts to whom the details of the administration have been entrusted.

Units of School Administration.—There are now five systems of units for school administration. Four of these, the community, the district, the township, and the county, as units, have been in existence for a number of years. The fifth, the State as the unit of the system, has been of much later development excepting in New York, where since 1784 a State board, known as the Board of Regents, has had the right "to found schools and colleges in any part of the State." These State boards now exist, however, in thirty-three of the States, and educational commissions in Pennsylvania, Iowa, and Illinois have also recommended their adoption. Hence, the tendency is decidedly towards these larger units and away from the district system which at one time was almost universal.

The district system implies that the people of a community shall have practically entire control of their own schools, whether the district be large or small. It carries with it the idea that the town or township shall be arranged in subdivisions each forming a unit of school organization and school administration. Although these districts are not necessarily independent of a larger control in questions of management of their school affairs, their authority is supreme. The district system for years has interfered with the proper management of some of the New England schools, and it is interesting to note that Connecticut, by legislation taking effect in 1909, made the town instead of the district the unit. Tennessee also, quite recently, abolished the district system and established county boards of education in place of the multitude of these smaller units with their diverse interests and practices.

Some of the advantages of the larger school units are as follows: They give a systematic organization and a more uniform administration to the entire State. This means economy in expense, eliminates waste of time and effort for children and teachers moving from place to place within the State, renders the certification of teachers and the control of training schools more effective, and makes possible a continuous expert body to meet strictly the needs of the schools of the entire State. They guarantee greater uniformity of excellence. They make possible a wiser use of the State's school moneys and a prompter meeting of emergencies arising in school affairs. That they create too great a centralization of power, or are in danger of becoming a political menace, depends as does any smaller organization upon the will and intelligence with which the people endorse the acts of their representatives. The excellent work of the Massachusetts and New York State boards is a sufficient recommendation and guarantee.

Advantages
of Larger
Units

In the State board plan, the Superintendent should be clothed with great power. He must also have the privilege of distributing special activities among his assistants and of managing the work of the more local agencies of the public schools throughout the State.

The Superintendent.—With the exception of Delaware, every State in the Union has a Superintendent of Public Instruction. In thirty-three of the States these superintendents are elected by popular vote; in seven States and two territories they are appointed by the Governor; in four they are elected by the State Board of Control; and in Vermont by the General Assembly. In the election by the people, political domination has often prevented the nomination and election of the best candidate, although it is democratic to keep an office as close as possible to the immediate interests of the people. However, the fact that the best available person may not belong to the dominant party and, if he does, is

always under more or less suspicion from his political opponents, renders this plan on the whole a doubtful one. Appointment by the Governor has proved entirely satisfactory in Pennsylvania, where there has not been a strictly political appointment for many years. The present incumbent, Dr. Nathan C. Schaeffer, has been in office for some twenty years. A non-political State board appointed by the Governor and having the prerogative of electing the State Superintendent is practically safe from political bias or influence of any sort.

Few of the States set any standard of qualifications that must be met by candidates for the State Superintendency. This would seem to be a point of danger. Virginia requires an "experienced educator," and West Virginia, where the standard seems best defined, requires "a person of good moral character, of temperate habits, of literary acquirements, and possessing skill and practice in the art of teaching."

While in many of the States the power and duties of the State Superintendent are large, in no other are they quite so extended as in New York. There the authority of the Superintendent, who is known as the Com. of Ed.
in New
York Commissioner of Education, extends over all of the schools, public and private, excepting the colleges and the technical and professional schools. The Commissioner also has large appointive powers and practically unlimited authority over the examination and certification of teachers. He may condemn school buildings and order new ones to be built; and, in general, his power as a school executive is absolute and his decisions final; for he cannot legally be "called in question in any court or in any other place." That this authority has not been misplaced is evident from the uniform efficiency of the New York schools that has developed within recent years.

Some years ago, New York made the mistake of establishing two conflicting educational authorities. When

the "Educational Unification Bill" was passed in 1904 after a most bitter fight in the Legislature, it consolidated the duties of the Secretary of the Board of Regents and the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and conferred their dual authority upon one person to be known as the Commissioner of Education. The first Commissioner, Dr. Andrew S. Draper, was elected by the Legislature, but it was freely predicted that when, under the provisions of the law, the time for a new election by the Board of Regents approached, there would be a recasting of the Bill by the Legislature to enable them to make a political appointment and thus get control of the vast patronage possible in the State school system. However, the new measure has so fully justified its enactment and Doctor Draper has so ably filled his onerous position that when the time for a new election recently came round, there was no suggestion of revising the law or of replacing its worthy interpreter and executive.

Certification of Teachers.—There are many decided advantages in the State system of examination and certification of teachers, and the tendency is in that direction. The main advantages in such a plan are:

1. It tends to equalize educational conditions throughout the State. This makes the management both easier and more thorough. It also tends toward a system that is economical of money, time, and effort.

2. It relieves such subordinate officials as County Superintendents of the duty of examining teachers and thus affords them more time to devote to their more direct work of visitation and supervision.

3. The examining can be done by educational experts and with a judgment that is uniform, impartial, and free from the evil effects of social and political pressure.

4. Teachers certificated by a State board can teach in any part of the State, without the necessity of passing other examinations during the period covered by the certificates secured by them. This tends to uniformity

of salary and the possibility of meeting more fully and easily the needs of various localities within the State.

5. It encourages working for the highest grade of certificate offered and thus adds both permanency and dignity to the teacher's calling, while at the same time it furnishes a potent argument for higher remuneration.

6. It facilitates arranging the names of candidates on an eligible list, according to rank and standing, and thus assists in securing the best available material at all times. These eligible lists also remove the temptation to secure preferment in some other way than on the basis of merit.

To obviate the expense to candidates which would be necessary if the examinations should be held in but one center, they may be periodically held in various convenient centers. To secure uniformity the papers can be sent, under seal, to the State center and there receive uniform examination and markings.

As a brief yet comprehensive expression of the characteristics of a successful Superintendent of schools—whether it be of the schools of the State, of a city, or a county or district—nothing excels the summary made by Dr. Harris in the *Educational Review* iii, 172: "The efficient superintendent, therefore, sets into working order three educative influences to support the one great work of education in the school system; namely, an educative influence in wise measures and correct insight for members of the school board; second, an educative influence resulting in insight into methods and a growth in personal control, and besides these a culture in literature and art and science, for the teachers; thirdly, for the community, an enlightened public opinion which knows what the schools are actually doing and can intelligently explain merits and defects, and tell what changes are desirable for onward progress."

School Records.—There is a lack of uniformity in school records as they are kept in the United States that

is both annoying and unprofitable. In general, these records are kept only for enrollment and attendance, and the way in which even this is often done is a reproach to the business methods of our school management. There is a tendency unnecessarily to multiply general school data which is, of course, to be deplored. Most of this can be more profitably restricted to special inquiry and to the specific interpretation accompanying it. But there are a number of essential things about which an economical and efficient management must have data, and there should be a general agreement among school men as to what these should be and a uniform practice for keeping them should be adopted. Superintendent Wm. H. Elson and his assistant, Frank P. Bachman, have a timely article on this subject in the March number of the *Educational Review*. Some of the points they emphasize are as follows:

Supt. Elson
and School
Records

“Any one having to do directly with school work knows that the present condition of school records is deplorable.” In few places are teachers instructed as to the best methods of securing and keeping “records with reference to home conditions, school ambitions, retardation, withdrawals, non-promotion, failure in studies, repetition, etc., questions vital in the administration of the present-day school.” There is a diversity of nomenclature and of methods of interpretation, even in such simple matters as enrollment and attendance, which makes comparison extremely difficult and uncertain. This is particularly noticeable in high school reports. “If this confusion is to be terminated, it seems proper that the National Commissioner of Education should give the schools of the country a terminology and that each man in local authority accept this and put it into practice.” To this should be added: and each should be asked to employ an essentially uniform practice in his method of applying this terminology.

Because in so many places teachers and principals fail to think of their schools as part of a larger system, transferred pupils are sometimes enrolled in different schools several times during a year and thus are counted several times in the same general annual report. This vitiates the value of at least the total enrollment item. There is also a great variety of practice in regard to how long names shall be carried on roll during protracted illness, etc.; in regard to methods of determining attendance in its relation to enrollment,—number enrolled, average number enrolled, average number belonging, average number attending, per cent. of attendance on average number belonging, per cent. of attendance on average number enrolled, per cent. of attendance on number enrolled—all these being important items in the calculations for securing these important data; there is also an insidious practice which permits marking a child present in two or more rooms or buildings as he passes from one to the other during his daily work.

But it is also becoming imperative that some new items of record be introduced, as new problems press in upon us. "The most pressing of these new problems is the one of saving educational waste." A breaking up of the old idea that elementary education shall be uniform for all, as well as the changing conditions in the home, make it advisable for the teacher to keep some record of home conditions and school ambitions. "The average child has only a given number of years to give to education; these spent, he must stop, no matter in what grade he may be." Hence, the school needs to know from its records that no one is being unduly held back. It is also desirable to know how many pupils complete at least the essential part or parts of a public school course.

According to the conclusions of Dr. Ayres, only about 50 per cent. of the elementary pupils complete that course. Professor Thorndike reduces this to only a third. Although these estimates are both only theo-

retical, they emphasize the need of the kind of data which would furnish exact information on this important point. Finally, it is of great importance to know how many children find it necessary to repeat the work of a grade; for upon this must be based many of our most valuable inquiries as to causes of non-promotion and the fitness of courses of study.

The Administration of Rural Schools.—So far as the actual administration is concerned, our rural schools show the following defects:

1. Too short a school term to accomplish effectively all that should be done before the expiration of the compulsory school period.

2. Lack of high standards of qualifications for teachers and unbusiness-like ways of electing and retaining teachers.

3. Defects in regard to courses of study. These courses are often totally lacking or so general and vague in their requirements that the work of the various teachers in any one rural system may run the entire scale of possibilities.

4. Inadequate inspection. This emphasizes the imperfections in the courses of study and leaves many of the rural school systems without any serious expert test or supervision.

5. To these might well be added such items as (a) too frequent change of teachers or the retaining of incompetent and superannuated teachers; (b) community indifference to the cause of education in general and to the work of the school of the community in particular; (c) low salaries, with narrow or mistaken views in regard to the teacher's standing and province in the community; and worst of all (d) a wide-spread opinion that the Rural School cannot make its work compare at all favorably with that of the town or city school.

Rural Schools in Germany.—For the sake of comparison along these lines, consider what is going on in the rural or one-class schools of Germany. There the school

term is the same in city and country and averages nearly 250 days per year. The teachers for these rural schools receive as adequate training as those for urban schools; in fact, many of them are required to teach in the city schools before going to these smaller schools. As early as 1810, Prussia inaugurated a system of examining and certifying teachers; and the government has since that time consistently followed a policy of making the teacher's calling one of honor and preferment. And as Professor James E. Russell has said, "No other country has done so much to dignify teaching, and to attract to it the best talent; none has so persistently and intelligently pursued the policy of making the teacher's position worthy the man; nowhere else can such teachers be found." Teachers in Germany are generally of maturer age than in America. While it is possible for an American teacher to be certificated at eighteen or even younger, in Germany the minimum age is twenty-four. These are all items of importance in bringing about and securing superior efficiency.

The rural schools in Germany are also as effectively supervised as are the city schools. The course of study is also just as thoroughly outlined and the teacher's fulfillment of its requirements just as fully tested. After completing a three years' course in a training school, the German teacher is licensed to teach for three years. At the expiration of this time, or at the end of two years if the candidate so elects, he is given a final examination as a test of whether the State is willing to elect him permanently into its body of instructors. In this test, an effort is made to determine his mastery of the fundamental branches of the curriculum, his skill in the intrinsic processes, his familiarity with educational literature and current educational discussion, and his ability to plan, outline and defend both the methods and the practice which he would follow. This calls for a thoroughness which cannot help but be reflected in the schools,

and it guarantees to the teacher who successfully meets this test permanent and well-paid employment in an honored, influential position.

Not only has the German Government worked out a stable educational policy, but its schools are also so managed that teachers are accountable only to men of thorough educational and professional training. One of the most discouraging features of our rural school problems is the too frequent necessity that the teacher is under of meeting the ignorance and prejudice of school authorities. These are even harder to meet successfully than the corrupting influence of social and political domination in school affairs of which there are so many complaints in the city and in the town; for, in the city, publicity and an organizing of the better forces are more easily effected than in the country.

The passing away of the district system of school administration is assisting materially in remedying this defect of rural school management. The larger school units increase the territory from which popular choice of directors or boards of education can be made and this, almost invariably, is attended with the demand for better organization and a higher type of management.

To effect this better organization, the policy of establishing larger school centers, to which pupils are transported free of expense to their parents, is growing. While this plan is no new thing in the West and in portions of New England, it has not yet been adopted in many parts of the country where it could be made just as effective in uplifting the Rural School as it has proved itself in these other sections.

Transportation of Pupils

Because the State is so vitally interested in the welfare of its rural communities, it should furnish liberal financial assistance wherever and whenever it is needed. Especially is this true in connection with the payment of sufficiently high salaries to induce good teachers to come to the rural schools and to be content to remain there.

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENTS DIRECTLY AFFECTING THE VARIOUS TYPES OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

(1) THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.—There are several things directly or indirectly affecting the elementary school which received marked consideration during the past year. These will be grouped under the four heads: Compulsory attendance; Courses of study; Thoroughness; Stimulating a desire for a continuation of the education.

Compulsory Attendance.—That the child may be educated it must be placed and kept in school. With but few exceptions all of the States and most foreign countries now have laws compelling parents to send the child to school during a certain period of its life. This period varies in different countries. In the United States it is quite generally during the period from 6 to 14 inclusive. In Spain and Portugal the obligatory period covers only four years and even then is seldom enforced, although both countries pledge themselves to great improvements in this respect. In Italy, under a law passed in 1904, the compulsory period was extended to six years wherever a higher elementary class is maintained; in other Communes the period is only three years, or from 6 to 9. In Greece, the land of traditional culture, there is a revival of interest in education which has already extended the obligatory period of school attendance to seven years, or from five to twelve.

However, owing to the indifference and cupidity of some parents, compulsory laws everywhere need careful and rigid enforcement. That they are indifferently and laxly executed in places in the United States seems evident from reports received; that they are intelli-

gently and fearlessly carried out in many other places is equally evident. So much is being said about the failure of the school vitally to touch the life of the child that it is well to remember that, to interest the child at all, it must be in school and must be there regularly enough to come under the best influences of the school.

Courses of Study.—There are many most excellent things which the child should know or do that it is inadvisable or inexpedient to have in a course of study. In this respect the educator must exercise the most careful discrimination. There is a great cry that everything must be removed from courses of study which does not tend very directly towards efficiency, culture, or character, with special emphasis at present upon the first. If any of these things is lacking the course must be enriched by its introduction. In all respects the course must meet the essential needs of the time, even though it may not always reflect these needs as everyone may happen to see them.

Thoroughness.—In an address before the University Club of Washington early last year, President Taft referred to the failures of applicants for admission to West Point, and made the statement that they fail in rudimentary subjects. "It is true," he said, "that applicants for admission to West Point and Annapolis fail, in many instances, on subjects that every schoolboy ought to know. They cannot spell and are deficient in other rudimentary branches." This seems to be the burden of many of the charges made against the elementary school. While it would be unjust to the schools to suppose that these applicants are their best students, or even that they always fairly represent the average work done in them, thoroughness is one of the most essential things, both in its results and as a habit, that the schools can accomplish.

Thoroughness is the product of clearness of insight and a facility in using knowledge or skill that comes

only from repetition and variety in application. This in elementary work demands a well-trained teacher, definite aims clearly grasped, and good methods of work.

The greatest improvement in methods during the past year was undoubtedly in the teaching of reading. The great influx of foreigners each year has greatly stimulated the study of methods of teaching Language. With the exception of this, and the perennial subject of penmanship, there has recently been less attention paid to method than its importance demands. Dr. Charles A. McMurray has given more thought to the subject of method in the class-room than any recent educational writer. The art side of other callings and professions almost invariably receives more attention than the theoretical; but, recently, the reverse seems to be true about teaching, even though teachers are always eager for instruction in methods. We need more good works on method, especially such as will clearly differentiate in the methods to be employed in *formal studies* as contrasted with *content studies*.

Stimulating a Desire to Continue the Education.—Although the small percentage of pupils who, in the United States, continue their schooling after the compulsory period has expired is not at all creditable to the School, it is increasing. Improved facilities, the more practical tendency presented in much of the school-work, and an awakening of genuine and general interest in education, are having their natural influence upon the ideals of the young.

Probably no one influence is doing more in this direction than the attitude of influential men in large business and manufacturing firms. The number of these who are openly showing their interest and belief in a thorough education is constantly increasing. The number who have evidenced their willingness to assist young employees in a profitable continuation of their school work is both creditable and promising.

(2) THE HIGH SCHOOL.—Several cities have tried a shorter high school course for those who, for various reasons, are unable to take the usual four years' course, and with marked success; and last September Chicago introduced the same plan. In her recommendation for its adoption, Supt. Ella Flagg Young said, "Many children do not enter the High School because they know they will not be able to finish the four years' course. The number of children who enter the high schools has decreased all over the country at an alarming rate. Other cities, among them St. Louis, have tried a shorter high school course, and it has proved successful and has filled a real need."

The general plan adopted by Chicago so arranges the work for the two years that pupils can get a thorough training in some one principal subject of study, with all necessary training in allied subjects which have a direct bearing upon it. For example, if the subject chosen should be Typewriting and Stenography, the allied subjects are English, including Spelling, Business Arithmetic, Penmanship, etc. If it should be Domestic Science, the allied branches are English, Practical Arithmetic, Textiles, Household Science, etc. A two years' course in such subjects as Pattern-making, Carpentering, Machine-shop Work, with the necessary English and Mechanical Drawing, is also being arranged.

The
Chicago
Plan

All the two-year courses are so arranged that pupils who can and desire to continue for the longer four years' course may do so without any break in the work or any loss of time. These courses are an effort to meet in a practical way a real need of the people, while at the same time being so presented as to make an effective appeal to have the youth remain in school. This, existing high schools are not doing in an effective way.

The public high schools inherited their courses of study from the old academies which they so largely

supplanted. These academies were college-preparatory schools and the high schools have remained, almost entirely, college-preparatory schools. A college course is a most desirable thing; but it no longer meets with general approval to run these higher schools in the interest of the one or two per cent. who can go to college. The high school should in its main efforts in reality be the crown of the elementary school. Although it should afford full opportunity for preparation for the higher work of the college or the technical school, its main effort must be to supply the need of the great mass whose schooling cannot possibly extend to the college or the technical school. Until this is satisfactorily accomplished, the mass of pupils will leave the School incompletely educated and the burden of their real training rest upon the busy world for which the School is supposed to train them. Under such conditions dissatisfaction with the School would grow until finally some other form of social effort would be found to take its place. This would be especially true of the high school; for, while the elementary school would likely be retained for the rudiments of knowledge, the people would not sanction the heavy expense of high schools should they become convinced that these schools were not furnishing the additional advantages for successful living that has been claimed for them.

In addition to the claims that the high schools are not doing the kind of work which appeals to the mass of people and that they are dominated in their work by college influences, there is a third charge being made against them. This is that they do not hold their pupils after they get them. Entirely too small a percentage of those who enter complete the course. This is no doubt due to various causes; for some of which the High School itself is not responsible. But one very fruitful cause is the discouragement arising from the methods of teaching; and for this it is responsible. While the scholarship

of most high school teachers is undoubtedly creditable, there is a tendency to exalt mere knowledge in a way that is disheartening to the struggling beginner. If the emphasis were shifted to teaching the *student* rather than the *subject*, the High School would become a place of greater attractiveness and strength.

The impression is gaining ground that pedagogical knowledge and skill are in inverse ratio to the complexity of the need—that the best organized and most thoroughly grasped training for the imparting of ideas and the developing of skill, culture, and character, is in the kindergarten—the poorest being in the highest institutions of learning. The reverse should be true.

The Training of Secondary (High School) Teachers in Germany.—Prussia requires everyone who would become a teacher in its higher schools to meet very exacting requirements as an indication both of knowledge and pedagogical training. As the value of the pedagogical side of secondary teaching is somewhat apt to be ignored in the United States, the Prussian requirements for becoming a high school teacher (Oberlehrer) are worth considering:

1. After completing a course at a Gymnasium, Real gymnasium, or Oberrealschule, and having spent at least six semesters at some German university, the candidate must have passed successfully a State examination, covering the German language and literature, religion and pedagogy, as required subjects, and in three others in which he feels most proficient and which he desires to teach. This examination is known as the Staats-examen.

2. After passing this, if he is recommended as physically able to become a teacher, he must spend a year in a pedagogical 'seminar' in connection with some high school. This year is called the Seminarjahr.

3. He now spends an additional year (the Probe-jahr) in actual teaching in some higher school, under

the inspection and criticism of the director of the school. This teaching is often done without pay.

4. If the director of the seminar in which he served his Probejahr approves his work and he also has the approval of the State inspector, who visits all classes, he then, after receiving his official certificate from the State authorities, may be assigned to regular high school teaching.

Literature in the High School.—The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools provides for a triennial conference, known as The National Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English. According to Professor J. H. Gardiner of Harvard, the last recommendations of this conference provide an ideal course in literature for high school pupils between the ages of 14 and 18. The questions prepared suggest three kinds of work:

1. Practice in reading a considerable variety of literature.

2. Close study of a small amount of poetry and prose.

3. Practice in English composition.

In carrying out the first, the pupil "should read the books carefully but his attention should not be so fixed upon details that he fails to appreciate the main purpose and charm of what he reads." One of the great purposes of this is to show him that there is something different in great works of literature from what is to be found in the passing books of the day. The reading should be done out of school and then, through a lively, well-directed discussion in school, the pupils should be led to see for themselves the wisdom, shrewd insight of character, and the beauty of phrase and imagery contained in the masterpieces read.

The purpose of the close study of a few good specimens—say one or more of Shakespeare's plays, some of Milton's minor poems, a famous speech, and an essay—is to show the meaning and force of words, expressions,

and allusions. In the study of the prose, the clear-cut, muscular thought is to be grasped by closely following the reasoning. Burke's speech "On Conciliation with America" is especially recommended. Especially should the ability to grasp the meaning of what is read be developed, as well as facility in expressing with exactness and thoroughness the thought as the pupil sees it.

The design of the composition work is to develop the principles of punctuation, the use of words, sentences, paragraphs, and the different kinds of composition, including letter-writing. These should be thoroughly mastered through ample practice in both oral and written composition.

The Exchange of High School Teachers.—A Report of the Carnegie Foundation, on the exchange of secondary school teachers with Prussia, follows: The details for the arrangements for this exchange are in charge of the Prussian Minister of Education and the President of the Carnegie Foundation. The Prussian schools seem glad to make the exchange, although but few of the American schools have manifested a willingness to assume the expense involved. It was carefully stipulated at the outset that the exchange teachers were to take no part in formal instruction but that they were merely to give instruction, through conversations in their own language and in an informal manner for not more than two hours daily, to classes composed mainly of upper classmen desiring to perfect themselves in the language.

The Americans who have already been in exchange were asked to report upon:

1. The reception which the teacher meets in Prussia and the opportunity given to observe their schools.
2. The character of the teaching which is done.
3. A comparison in a general way between the Prussian gymnasium and our high school.
4. The preparation of the Prussian teacher, his compensation and social standing.

The various reports show:

That in Prussia the efforts to meet the desire of different kinds of students is accomplished more by providing a variety of types of school than by a large elective system in a single school. Each kind of work aims at a well-defined purpose; the plan being to make some group of studies form the core around which all the work of the school is gathered. This prevents dissipation of energy, concentrates the efforts of the pupils upon a few well chosen subjects, and tends to make the German high school pupil regard his studies with more earnestness than is apt to be the case with the American boy. It also explains why the German parents manifest more interest in the success of their children than is true here.

This concentration of effort is open to the criticism that it tends to specialization before the pupil is fully enough developed for it. It also puts the smaller cities with their comparatively few high schools at a disadvantage.

The American teachers were greatly impressed with the character of the instruction given in the Prussian high schools; for their instructors are experts in teaching—men of university training who look upon teaching as their life-work and not as a stepping-stone or a side-issue. "Such men teach with the thoroughness and vigor which men are apt to give to their profession, and this reacts upon the pupil." These teachers also have the dignity and professional pride which characterize the expert the world over.

The reports are emphatic in their statements that the American boy of 14 who enters the high school is far less advanced than the German boy of the same age. This is partly due to the longer hours of the German schools but more largely to the strength of the teaching in the lower schools.

A number of these exchange teachers express dissatisfaction with the American high school curriculum,

which so often represents an effort to crowd eight or nine years' work into the four years' course. "Under such a régime the younger pupils become discouraged and those who survive the process have a superficial training."

The advantages claimed for this exchange of teachers are: (a) It gives pupils valuable practice, under an intelligent and skilled native teacher, in the conversational use of the foreign language; (b) It affords the visiting teacher exceptional language opportunities; (c) It develops a better understanding of the conditions in the foreign country, and thus helps to forward better relations between the two countries; (d) It gives an opportunity, at close range, to observe the workings of another school system, and, although everything observed cannot be adopted and what is adopted must often be modified, the opportunity and benefits of this observation are of exceedingly great value.

Industrial Classes in Boston.—The School Committee of Boston has established afternoon industrial classes in connection with their high school work. The drawing and manual training already given in the high schools is to be used as a basis of the work.

The three classes already established are: (1) a class in jewelry and silver-smithing; (2) a class in commercial designing; and (3) a class in electrical manufacturing. Only such high school pupils are admitted as are considered to have sufficient preliminary training to profit from the work. The pupils are required to pay for their materials but they then own the products of their own skill.

Boston, with the coöperation of the State Industrial Commission, proposes to establish also: (1) a trade school for girls, with instruction in dressmaking, millinery, clothing, machine operating, and straw-machine operating; (2) a pre-apprentice school for bookbinders and printers, in which boys who expect to become appren-

tices in these trades will be given instruction prior to the age of sixteen; and (3) a similar school for sheet-metal workers.

(3) CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.—It is true of everyone that most of the education must come after school days are over. At least, this is true of the applications of our schooling and of the part of our training that most appeals to us, or that seems most applicable to our life-work and our life-interests. No man can do all of his studying before he is twenty-two; and the great majority are compelled to take up active duties years before this period. However, if the education has been a proper one, power to grow and a desire to keep on growing have been firmly imbedded in the life. Then, too, after leaving school many see as never before the meaning of school opportunities and gladly embrace a chance to resume school-work of some form.

There is a large contingent of young people who cause great anxiety to Society because, after they leave school, they plunge into practices detrimental to morals as well as to health and further progress. As nearly all who have once left the School are so restricted by circumstances as to make it impossible or inadvisable for them to relinquish wage-earning positions to give their entire time once again to the School, educators and social workers are becoming alive to the necessity of making wise and adequate provision for all such and to put such provision into the general forms that will most fully appeal to them.

In the United States, until within the last few years, this continuation work has been provided for solely in private institutions, in organizations that have given

evening instruction at a nominal fee, or in evening schools provided as part of the general educational system. However, as it has been found that the class of people whom all have been most anxious to reach—the young people of 15 to 18

Continuation Schools
in the U. S.

who have just left school—have either taken little interest or derived little benefit from these evening schools, other means of opportunity and appeal have been sought.

The Germans—having already passed through this same experience—seem to have found an excellent solution of the problem in their Continuation Schools; hence, many of our educators are now trying experiments based upon the same general plans. As will be seen from the accompanying sketch of these schools as they are carried on in Munich, where they are probably best developed, they are organically related to the general system of schools. Whether under our different conditions they can be made as effective as in Germany or whether, in the end, we shall not have to modify them greatly or indeed adopt an entirely different scheme, remains to be seen.

The Continuation Schools of Munich.—Munich, a city of approximately 600,000 inhabitants, has a regular school enrollment of 67,000 children between the ages of 6 and 14, while in its Continuation Schools are enrolled nearly 15,000 boys and girls—almost one-fourth as many. Attendance in the latter is compulsory for boys from 14 to 18 years of age and for girls of 13 to 16. This extends the period of compulsory education several years beyond the general practice in America. From 4 to 6 hours per week must be spent by each pupil in the Continuation School upon the specialty chosen as an occupation. The remainder of the time is spent at actual work in the occupation.

Doctor Kerschensteiner, who has done so much to develop the work in Munich, has so arranged the courses of study that the foundation for the work of the Continuation School is laid in the last year of the elementary school (Volkschule). During this year, the eighth school year for boys and the seventh for girls, the work is massed upon the vocational side. Out of the 32 hours a

week for boys, 21 of them are given up to drawing, mathematics, science, and work in wood and metal. Two hours per week are devoted to gymnastics, including swimming, and the remaining 9 hours are devoted to literary work, the usual instruction in German history and in religion being part of the course.

Girls who leave at the end of the seventh year are obliged either to attend on Wednesday afternoons for three hours per week or at the *Sonntagschule* on Sundays. Those who remain in the *Volkschule* until the end of the eighth year are obliged to attend for only one year. The instruction during the eighth year for girls is similar to that for boys, excepting that the teaching is centered upon needlework, cookery, the care of infants, and the proper keeping of domestic accounts.

So popular has the Continuation School become that many girls take up voluntary work in them for from 6 to 10 hours per week, entirely aside from the work which is compulsory.

The city is spending at the rate of nearly a quarter million of dollars each year upon these schools alone. This is a large amount; but they have so fully demonstrated their usefulness that interest and enthusiasm have been aroused among business firms, both small and large, and their hearty active coöperation, as well as that of trade unions and trade associations, has been secured. Because of the common public interest manifested in this way in industry, almost all of the boys and girls of Munich enter at once upon hand-work or other skilled employment immediately upon completing the elementary work. The municipal labor bureau of the city finds places for nearly all of these young people who apply.

The underlying thought in Munich, and in fact in most of the European places where Continuation Schools have been established, seems to be that, in order to make a sufficiently strong appeal to the masses, courses

must be provided which are specifically in the direction of the vocations and that the more specific the work and the greater the variety of occupations provided for the stronger the appeal.

The longer hours and more vigorous work of the German elementary schools permit a definite laying of the foundation for vocational work before the State releases its hold upon all of the school-time of the pupil. So strong has become the industrial tendency in the countries of central and northern Europe that this specific technical training is regarded as absolutely essential for the economic and social welfare of the State. By the inclusion of instruction in hygiene, civics, and religion, the hope is also greatly to promote the welfare of the individual in the State. This is in recognition of the fact that the progress of the individual after all depends upon a broad, sympathetic, and hopeful outlook on life, and that, therefore, his instruction must include an appreciation of other trades and nations and his realization of his duties to himself, to his community, and to his State.

The work in these Continuation Schools is both vigorous and specific; and the results have already revolutionized economic conditions in Switzerland, Germany, and the countries to the north. Whether it shall not eventually produce a too intense national pride and give an unwarranted importance to mere industrial success remains to be seen. That it has much that is entirely commendable is evident. Both Great Britain and America have come under the influence of these schools. Scotland has probably made the greatest advance. The province of Ontario has recently made provision for Continuation Schools in districts having no high schools. In the United States, industrial evening schools, of the nature of voluntary continuation schools, are growing rapidly in number and popularity, but with what appears to be too strong a tendency towards

the merely technical side of education to be entirely good for a democratic government.

The Fitchburg Coöperative Plan.—Fitchburg, Massachusetts, is endeavoring to solve the problem of providing for such industrial training as will fit graduates for immediate service to business men and manufacturers, while at the same time holding the pupil for the other educational opportunities thus provided.

The plan adopted is the one outlined by Professor Herman Schneider, dean of the University of Cincinnati. This plan provides a system of coöperation between the engineering department of that institution and certain shops in Cincinnati, under which plan the shops take charge of the practical training of the students while the university teaches the theory. Being impressed with the Cincinnati plan, a similar scheme of coöperation received the endorsement of the school authorities and practically all of the manufacturers of Fitchburg.

A four years' course has been provided: The first year is spent wholly in the school, but during the last three years the pupils spend alternate weeks in the shop and in the school. The manufacturers take the boys in pairs, so that in the alternation they always have one of the pair at work. The advantage of this plan is that the boys keep each other posted on the work and thus both strengthen their own work and avoid annoyance for their employers.

The shop work consists of the usual apprenticeship instruction in the operation of lathes, planers, drilling machines, and the other work usually done at the machine or at the bench in a shop. For the weeks they are at work in the shops, the boys receive for the first year 10 cents per hour, for the second year 11 cents, and for the third year 12½ cents. It is interesting to note that these rates are higher than the ones paid former apprentices, the manufacturers themselves having voluntarily raised them on account of the improved character of the ser-

vice rendered by the boys. (See the *School Review* for March, 1910.)

The advantages claimed for this coöperative plan are:

1. It furnishes a strong inducement for the boy to remain in school. He can remain in school for a more effective education and at the same time become a wage-earner. This meets both possible stress of circumstances in the home and the desire to go to work which is so common among boys of fourteen or fifteen.

2. As the boy still belongs to the school rather than to the shop, arrangements are made by which he has a trial period of two months, which begins at the close of school in June, to learn his aptitudes and liking for the trade selected.

3. It puts boys absolutely under shop conditions and shop rules, while at the same time holding them under the instruction, the guidance, and the helpful interest of the school.

4. It may be made to develop stability of purpose and effort. In Fitchburg, a written agreement is entered into between the parents of the boy and the manufacturer, whereby the boy agrees to remain at his trade for three years and the manufacturer in return agrees to teach him the various branches of the trade selected.

5. It enables a boy to learn a trade more completely than if, like an ordinary apprentice, he should be made expert in the use of only one or two machines of the trade.

The one possible disadvantage of the plan lies in the fact that the manufacturers are apt to insist that only the most practical instruction shall be emphasized in the school.

The Fitchburg school-course, given in connection with the coöperative plan, provides:

Mathematics, with emphasis upon the practice rather than upon the theory; *Physics*, the study of working examples rather than of theories of abstruse phenomena;

Chemistry, in its application to fractured metals and the process of tempering; *Commercial Geography*, especially as to the sources of supply of raw materials and the cost of their preparation for market and their transportation; *Civics and American History*, for the special purpose of training for citizenship; *Drawing*, both free-hand and mechanical; *Business Methods*, in their application both to the work of the shop and to the business of the shop. In addition, for obvious reasons, a course of instruction is given in "First Aid to the Injured."

The public schools of Freeport, Illinois, have recently adopted a similar plan of coöperative work with the shops and factories of the place. The Board of Education is working with the Freeport Citizens Commercial Association in sustaining the plan. As a result of these efforts, Superintendent Raines has been able to find places for thirty boys who spend part of their time in the schools and part at this practical training.

(4) SCHOOL GARDENS AND VACATION SCHOOLS.—*School Gardens*.—Notwithstanding the difficulties attending a general introduction of some form of instruction in Agriculture into the city schools, good work in a limited way is being done in a number of places. While it has to some extent been true that "School gardens are not intended to create gardeners or farmers, but to afford the growing boy or girl an opportunity for many-sided development," there is a strong tendency in the work to endeavor to arouse an interest that will give a vocational trend towards this form of a life occupation. This interest, naturally, can be more consistently and effectively aroused in rural districts, or in schools that have a ready access to sufficiently large plots of ground.

Such a utilitarian trend is very marked in the Danish high schools and is thoroughly interwoven with the pedagogical plans of the elementary schools in Switzerland. In the latter, the work is begun in the middle grades of the primary schools. The instruction consists

of lessons in soils and their fertilization and is accompanied by practical field work. The pedagogical aims are to train to close observation and a strong mental grasp, and to develop skill and strength in the hand. Although the utilitarian information given is secondary to these, the interests of the child and of the home naturally sway it towards a very practical application of what is taught in the school—to agricultural industry and thrift.

In Canada, where under the auspices of the Macdonald Schools a group of school gardens was established in 1904, this European idea of utility is kept entirely in the background. In Canada the feeling has been that “nearly all such gardens School Gardens in Canada stop short with a certain amount of scientific information and the habit of careful observation,” and that they do not promote the symmetrical education of the individual which the Macdonald School garden ideal deems so important. This ideal is to make the garden “the outer class-room of the school,” with its garden plots as the background. (See “Among School Gardens,” by M. Louise Greene.)

It is interesting to note that, as early as 1897, a large industrial firm (The National Cash Register Co., of Dayton, Ohio) saw the ethical value of agriculture. The president of the company, after an investigation of the success and failure of his employees, was impressed with the idea that there had been scarcely a failure among those who in boyhood had been under the active influence of farm or garden work. Hence, he decided to try the experiment of giving the surplus energy of his young employees an opportunity to express itself in practical garden work, with the privilege of enjoying the fruits of steady work and upright business energy spent upon these gardens. The plan proved so successful that it is to-day one of the best influences for industry, thrift, and good character in this large and progres-

sive business establishment. The plots in these gardens are 10×100 feet, large enough to provide a family of five with fresh vegetables throughout the season. The work is done under the instruction and supervision of a competent gardener.

It has been suggested that one of the most effective solutions for much of the cry about the high cost of food stuffs would be solved by a general return to the old time family garden that used to be connected with each home. And if in connection with this are also developed the business thrift and the moral steadiness which mark an agricultural people, all of the trouble and expense of the instruction that so naturally tends in these directions is well worth while.

Vacation Schools. — No general type of Vacation School has yet been evolved, and, beyond a general effort to provide something worth while and interesting for the boys and girls who otherwise would receive only street training during the vacation months, little has been done.

The tendency is to give no book lessons whatever in these schools; the instruction being confined entirely to lessons in such vocational subjects as sewing and cooking, to manual work in wood and other easily manipulated material, and to drawing, music, physical training, and nature study, with occasional excursions to places of interest.

In a few places walks which take in historical or other interesting places now form a part of the vacation work; although this idea is also being used on Saturdays, during periods of favorable weather, throughout the entire year. This is the German *schul-reise* idea and is proving both interesting and profitable to boys and girls. On the whole, the vacation school movement will probably in the end prove to be more social than intellectual in its nature.

PART III

CHAPTER V

DEVELOPMENTS DIRECTLY AFFECTING THE HIGHER INSTITUTIONS OF LEARNING

Higher Institutions of Learning include all schools in which the education obtained in the elementary and high school, or their equivalent, may be continued either for the purpose of securing greater culture, a profession, or extended technical knowledge and skill. While in some States such institutions provide free tuition in one or more lines of work to their own residents, they are not in the full sense of the term Public Schools. These higher institutions are: (a) the Colleges; (b) the Universities; (c) the Professional Schools—law, medicine, pedagogy; and (d) the Technical Schools—commerce, the arts, etc. The University usually includes all of these various schools in its organization.

(a) Colleges

When, in 1906, the Carnegie Foundation began to administer the fund contributed by Mr. Andrew Carnegie for the relief of sick and superannuated professors and professors' widows in acceptable institutions in the United States and in Canada, it was found that a wide diversity of standards exists among the various institutions which are known as colleges or universities. Of these there are some 850 in the United States and about 100 in Canada. Many of the so-called colleges are really only preparatory schools, and even some ambitious high schools

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Carnegie
Foundation

have assumed the title of college and secured the privilege of granting degrees. The colleges themselves had recognized this condition and, through the efforts of a College Entrance Examination Board, were already exerting an influence towards at least establishing something of a uniform standard of admittance to college.

But the action of this Board has been slow because its efforts could not be compulsory. Hence, to secure some uniformity of justice in the administration of their Fund, the Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation deemed it necessary to adopt the following: "An institution

to be ranked as a college must have at least six professors giving their entire time to college and university work, a course of four full years in liberal arts and sciences, and should require for admission not less than the usual four years of academic or high school preparation, or its equivalent, in addition to the pre-academic or grammar school studies." To be ranked as a college it must also have a productive endowment fund of not less than \$200,000. The Foundation also regards 14 units as the minimum amount of preparation which shall be accepted for college entrance—a unit being interpreted as a course in any subject which involves five periods of work each week throughout an academic year.

In general, colleges have been moving towards the plan of having during the first two years prescribed work, with the privilege of electing the studies for the last two years. Because of the criticisms of the elec-

Electives tive system, the University of Colorado has adopted with evident success the plan of having *elective courses* of prescribed subjects, in preference to that of *elective subjects*. This is more in accordance with the later views on the subject, which are to the effect that "electives" presuppose an enthusiasm for work that cannot be expected to be present until a broad well-laid foundation, to which to appeal, has first been established.

The College must articulate with the high school if the course of the higher education is to be consistent and thorough. This will necessitate barring out from the college all who have not completed the high school course or its equivalent. High ^{College and High School} schools are complaining that some colleges admit their fourth-year and even their third-year pupils. These are the colleges that admit almost anyone to their freshman classes and, as a result, the freshman year is in reality only a high school year. Yet, these same colleges grant these students the bachelor's degree in four years, sometimes even in three years. Women's colleges are frequent offenders in this respect and no claim of "individual instruction" can make up for this deficiency of standard.

It is not that these weak colleges have not served a good purpose in the past, in the pioneer stage of the higher work. For, as Mr. Bryce in his "American Commonwealth" points out, they have furnished stimulation and opportunity to many a ^{Mr. Bryce's Statement} youth who would have been unaffected by more remote institutions or unable to attend them because of the additional expense. Now, however, this pioneer need has passed and there is likely to be a weeding out, or a consolidation, of institutions that can not justify the effort for a decided strengthening of their position. Many such colleges owe their inception to denominational ambition or strife, some to local rivalries. Some of them manage to continue their existence only through extensive advertising—often of claims which it is impossible for them to fulfill—and without regard to their relation or duty towards the general educational system. Business, professional, and technical schools have been the worst offenders in this respect.

There are several very worthy tendencies in the development of the American college which should be noted. One is the growing effort to restrict the evil

effects of over-emphasizing athletics and, especially, to remove their distracting and immoral tendencies. It is a discreditable thing that the forms of health-promoting activities in our schools that thrust themselves most before the public attention, are the ones that partake more of the nature of gladiatorial spectacles than of a general fostering of the student health. It is a question whether, after all, some college authorities are not fostering these public contests as a means of advertisement rather than as an educative influence.

A second praiseworthy tendency is that towards the restoration of the closer relations between the teaching and the student body which prevailed in the days of the small college. The Princeton "preceptorial system" has done much towards furthering this desirable tendency in that institution. (See p. 168.) Such closer relations not only guide into better methods of work on the part of both instructor and student, but they also greatly promote more helpful and healthful moral and social relations in the college life. The fact that the college has drawn most of its supply of teachers directly from the University has, very naturally, led too much towards the lecture and research methods of the university when students have really needed more of the classroom methods of a regular recitation.

In common with other educational institutions, the College has been under the fire of criticism for some months past. In an interview recently granted to the *Yale Daily News*, Thomas A. Edison is quoted as saying that he regards it as a waste of time for young men to spend four years on Latin and Greek and the ordinary academic studies. For these, in his opinion, only tend to breed æsthetes and men of letters, while what our country needs is engineers, scientists, industrial men, good business-like managers and railroad men. He especially lauds what Mark Twain called "stick-to-it-iveness." "I attribute all I have accom-

plished to the fact that I hold on where most persons get discouraged." Others besides Edison are also accusing college students of learning only things of the past, while what we all need to be alive to are the things of the present.

Although similar claims are as old as the contest between science and the humanities, they are receiving a new emphasis in these days of severe industrial competition. Because of this, some are insisting that the last two years of the college be given over to graduate, professional, or technical schools, and that the college reach down two years lower and admit at 16 instead of 18, thus assuming two years of the work of the preparatory schools. How the question shall be settled, will probably depend upon the decision as to what constitutes a proper training before a man takes up the highest lines of specialization.

That our colleges will have to make material changes in their courses of study and in their methods is, no doubt, just as true as it is that the lower schools must greatly modify their work to meet the real need of the day. However, this does not say that the College has not filled both a high and a useful place in our American life. For, with all of its shortcomings, it is one of the most worthy products of our development as a nation. It has fostered and lifted higher some of our best ideals. And, on the whole, it has done its inspiring work fully as well as has any of the professions, or occupations, or business enterprises. But it must train for efficiency as well as for scholarship, and it must use both common-sense and business-like methods in its work.

(b) The University

There is no well-defined distinction between a college and a university in the United States. A great university is usually, in addition to its being an institu-

tion of higher learning, a place for acquiring professional and technical training, and partakes more of the nature of a large business or industrial corporation than does the college. In America, the University is an institution restricted to a definite locality, although it may have a number of separate buildings and separate educational activities. However, there seems to be a marked inclination towards the English idea of having it consist of a number of associated colleges or schools, regardless of their location.

There are, however, several points of distinction between the College and the University which are growing up in the United States. "The College exists for the training of men in those studies which lead not to a particular calling, but to a general view of the world and a comparison of their duty to it." "The University aims to give (1) professional training based or founded on high educational standards; (2) ability to make scholarly research. Its ideal is high professional proficiency and productive scholarship." To this end, it superimposes upon the regular college-work a graduate course with teachers in charge who are expert investigators and leaders in their profession.

The Carnegie Foundation, in its annual report for 1907, called the attention of the public to a matter which

has been causing no little anxiety to the management of higher institutions of learning.

This is the rapid increase of cost in their proper maintenance, owing to the multiplication of subjects, the cost of modern laboratory methods, and the necessary increase of salaries in order to hold good men. While in 1870 Harvard with 575 students was managed at an average cost of \$254 per student, in 1906, with 2800 students, the cost had increased to \$420 per student. Were it not for the generous assistance of friends of such institutions, in the way of periodical gifts or heavy

Difference
between
College and
University

Increasing
Cost

endowments, new and desirable work could not be undertaken and many of the existing activities would be sadly crippled.

There is little doubt, however, because of the increased cost of maintenance, that all higher institutions will have to give careful consideration to all possible means of avoiding waste. One of the means suggested has been to determine, and then maintain, a proper ratio of students to a teacher. Institutions reveal great diversity in this respect. While some have averaged as low as 1 to 4, others have maintained a ratio of as high as 1 to 20. Naturally, schools providing the largest variety of graduate work must maintain relatively the largest faculty. But even allowing for this there is still a great diversity.

Lord Rosebury has lately urged the abandonment of the idea that each university must endeavor to supply all possible demands for knowledge or training, and has urged that each emphasize the branch or related group of branches for which it is best fitted by its traditions, its endowments, and its organization. This would obviate many of the difficulties, would remove objectionable competition, and would greatly promote the coöperation which is so desirable.

UNIVERSITIES FOR THE PEOPLE.—The higher institutions have, during the last few years, been doing a noble work in extending their benefits to the public. In 1908 Harvard made the innovation of giving free public lectures on medical subjects. Doctor Butler has in a marked degree carried out the spirit of what he announced, upon his inauguration to the Presidency of Columbia, as being a proper watchword for a university—"Scholarship and service"; for he has organized numerous courses of lectures which are open to the public. In connection with these lectures, class-rooms and laboratories are open in the evening at the University as well as in other parts of the city. These same

facilities are to be extended to Westchester County and Northern New Jersey. The best instruction that Columbia can offer is in this way thrown open to wage-earners and to others, thus affording them opportunity for culture as well as to become experts in their line of work.

Massachusetts, during the past year, secured legislation for what promises to become a far-reaching movement. This is the establishment of what is in reality

a university for the people of the entire State, Massachusetts College although it legally bears the title of Massachusetts College. The idea is to provide college opportunities at centers so near to every home that no one need lack full opportunity to enjoy the benefits of a college education. The College contemplates about thirty such educational centers, so located that no one having access to a trolley will be at an expense of over a five cent fare to reach some one of them.

The cities and towns where these centers are to be located are expected to assist by providing places where the College may hold its sessions. The estimated cost for tuition is \$136 for the four years' course, or an average of only \$34 per year. The College is authorized to grant the degrees of B. A. and M. A., the standard of each being fully protected by the course that is covered and by the conditions that must be met before graduation. The College becomes operative as soon as \$500,000 shall have been subscribed by responsible people. As one of the seven trustees named for the Massachusetts College is Edmund D. Barbour, a retired Boston business man of great wealth, this part of the provision of the act should be easily met.

PRECEPTORIAL SYSTEM AT PRINCETON.—The preceptorial system at Princeton has now been operative for over five years and has aroused such favorable comment that a brief summary of its main features has been compiled from President Woodrow Wilson's Annual Report for 1909. According to this report, the system

is primarily a system of study and not a system of instruction. It is intended to give to the reading courses of the University a use, as a means of work, which is as direct and simple as the methods employed in the laboratories of the sciences.

Its characteristic feature is not, as has sometimes been said, that teachers meet their pupils informally in very small groups (from two to six in each group) for intimate instruction. This is not fundamental. The essence of the system is that "classes" and class-rooms are done away with except for purposes of drill. A "course" no longer consists in following a teacher's lectures or in "getting up" certain tests to be recited in class, but in a body of reading such as any mature man would naturally undertake, if he wished to master a certain subject. The men read subjects; they do not get up courses. Lectures are merely for the purpose of supplementing, explaining, illustrating, or stimulating, and could be and have been dispensed with; for the men learn to work by themselves and for themselves just as grown men, who have ceased to be school-boys, are systematically reading great subjects.

The men are called periodically to "conferences" with their preceptors for the purpose of discussing what they have read, to see if the work has been well done, and to give them counsel and, if needs be, assistance and stimulation. These conferences do not merely furnish a method of study which is productive of growth, independence, and a natural use of books for the sake of their contents, but they also foster a close and helpful association between the pupil and the teacher and among the pupils themselves. These associations are more reliable, as a means of intellectual contagion, than are the rarely found teachers who are able to impart a stimulus to the mind and spirit of all their students.

Hence, the method of the preceptorial system is not so much a method of study as it is a method of associa-

tion and influence. As a method of study, it is not so much a means of instruction as of intellectual development. Failing in this, while it would no doubt be an improvement in pedagogic method, it would still be a disappointment to its friends. It necessitates that the preceptors be able to make themselves felt as men, as intellectual guides, as original thinkers and independent students of their subjects. Doctor Wilson gives, no doubt, well-deserved credit to the preceptors at Princeton when he says: "Our preceptors are, almost without exception, men of unusual parts and of unusual personality." And this without question is one of the great secrets of the success of the scheme and would be fundamental anywhere. But then that is the type of man, and of woman also, that we should secure and hold for teaching purposes everywhere. Anything less robs the child and the student of two of their most precious possessions, time and opportunity. Anything else, regardless of its cost, is irredeemably expensive.

Dr. Wilson utters one caution in regard to the preceptorial system, and that is that its full and satisfactory use is not possible in all studies or at all stages of study; it must not be applied indiscriminately. The courses which are elementary and fundamental in principles and processes must receive uniform and consistent drill in the recitation, in order to lay the foundation for preceptorial work. All such courses fall necessarily under the head of instruction, not under the head of education. Even here, however, in Princeton, it is so arranged that certain members of the teaching staff, in each department, keep definite hours in easily accessible rooms where it is understood they may be consulted and are willing to assist in clearing up difficult points or things not clearly comprehended.

The system also, of course, requires a larger staff to do the work readily and well than is otherwise required. Against the extraordinary developments among under-

graduate students of activities which absorb their attention and divert their energies from the real university work, Doctor Wilson says, the system must not be expected to work an immediate revolution. The undergraduate lives in a world in which other things than study may take precedence; and it must not be expected that his preceptor can be his companion when one lives in one world, the other in another. Under our present university organization, the preceptorial system can be carried only to the borders of the life of the place, not to its center; and so long as this is the case its results, admirable as they may have been, must disappoint us.

THE EFFECTS OF SMOKING ON COLLEGE STUDENTS.—Dr. George L. Meylan, of Columbia University, makes a valuable contribution in the August issue of the *Popular Science Monthly* to that much mooted question, the effects of tobacco upon the smoker. His interest is naturally more centered upon the effects of smoking upon the college students. Dr. Meylan refers to the opinions of a number of medical experts as follows:

Dr. Woodhead, of Cambridge University, has concluded that "Cigarette smoking in the case of boys partly paralyzes the nerve-cells at the base of the brain and this interferes with the breathing and heart action. . . . In those accustomed to smoking it has a soothing effect upon the nervous system. . . . There appears to be less irritation of the brain structure and motor nerves than of the sensory nerves, but the power of fine co-ordination is decidedly lost."

To this Dr. Clouston, the eminent English physician, adds, in speaking of the tendency towards the excessive use of tobacco and the evil effects of such excess, "Used in such excessive quantity tobacco acts injuriously on the heart, weakens digestion, and causes congestion of the throat as well as hindering mental action. . . . In many people its use tends towards a desire for alcohol as well." Dr. Flick, of the Phipps Institute, notes that

the use of tobacco lowers the chances for recovery from tubercular troubles, and gives its use by males as one of the possible reasons why such diseases are more prevalent among males than females. Dr. Seaver, some years ago, said that: "A tabulation of the records of the students who entered Yale in nine years shows that the smokers averaged fifteen months older than the non-smokers, that they were inferior in height to the extent of seven millimeters, and in lung capacity to the extent of eighty centimeters."

On the other side of the question, Dr. Meylan quotes the statement of Dr. Clouston to the effect that "Tobacco, properly used, may in some cases undoubtedly be made a mental hygiene." "It is innocent as compared with alcohol; it is in no sense worse than tea," says Dr. Richardson in the London *Lancet*. And Dr. Pereira says, "I am not acquainted with any well-ascertained ill effects resulting from the habitual practice of smoking by adults."

Favorable
Views

Dr. Meylan himself made a careful detailed study of 223 college students, of whom 52 per cent. were smokers, and arrived at the following conclusions:

1. All scientists are agreed that the use of tobacco by adolescents is injurious; parents, teachers, and physicians should strive earnestly to warn youths against its use.

2. There is no scientific evidence that the moderate use of tobacco by healthy mature men produces any beneficial or injurious physical effects that can be measured.

3. There is an abundance of evidence that tobacco produces injurious effects on: (a) certain individuals suffering from various nervous affections; (b) persons with an idiosyncrasy against tobacco; and (c) all persons who use it excessively.

4. It has been shown conclusively in this study and also by Mr. Clarke (who made a similar study last year

at Clarke College) that the use of tobacco by college students is closely associated with idleness, lack of ambition, lack of application, and low scholarship.

Dr. Meylan also found that the great majority of the smokers acquired the habit when they were about 17 years old.

Medical Education

REPORT OF THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION.—Quite a great deal of feeling was stirred up during the past year by a special report made by the Carnegie Foundation on the condition of medical education in the United States. The report was prepared by Dr. Abraham Flexner, after what was claimed to be a careful and comprehensive investigation of conditions.

Report on
Medical
Schools

The general conclusion reached was that there are entirely too many medical schools, and that better results would be secured by a concentration of them, or by coördinating their work as is done in the great European universities. The report notes a tendency unduly to increase these schools, each of which naturally becomes an applicant for patronage; and, in order to secure sufficient numbers, many are constantly under the temptation of using lax standards. This is unfortunate and even dangerous to the public welfare, for medicine is one of the professions in which only the best possible training should be countenanced. Human life should not be cheapened by placing it under the care of anyone lacking either in skill or in knowledge.

For the past twenty years there has been a marked tendency, as well as a growing need, to establish a connection between detached schools of medicine and near-by universities. But, even where this connection is closest, the relation up to the present has been merely nominal, with little responsibility on the part of the university for the professional work. This should not be, for

"the fundamental sciences upon which medicine depends have been greatly extended. The laboratory has come to furnish alike to the physician and to the surgeon a new means for diagnosing and combating disease. The education of the medical practitioner under these changed conditions makes entirely different demands in respect to both preliminary and professional training." To this should be added the greatly increased demand for expert knowledge concerning problems of public health and methods of promoting the welfare of the physically deficient.

It is the opinion of the Foundation that the time has come when the relation of medical education to the general system of education should be clearly defined. Some difficulty in investigating existing conditions was encountered because educational institutions, particularly such as are connected with colleges or universities, seemed sensitive to criticism and were adverse to publicity. This was particularly noticeable in what the Foundation calls "Commercial medical schools," a "distinctly American product." There should be some means, for the protection of the public, of the layman's determining that the physician, called into his family in cases where life and death are in the balance, is an adequately trained person. Hence, the schools in which physicians are trained should be open to public inspection and should be required to meet high standards.

The significant facts claimed to be revealed in the study made by the Foundation were:

1. For the past twenty-five years there has been an immense over-production of under-educated and ill-trained medical practitioners.

Summary of Criticism 2. This over-production is largely due to the existence of commercial medical schools.

3. The profits of such schools have been greatly diminished by the demand for laboratories, which has been more or less inadequately met.

4. The existence of these inadequate schools has been defended on the ground that they afford openings for poor boys.

5. A hospital, under complete educational control, is as necessary to a medical school as is a laboratory of chemistry or pathology. High-grade teaching in the medical schools also exerts an influence upon the hospital staff.

While it is true that ultimately much depends upon the enthusiasm and devotion of the teachers and supporters of a medical school, yet without sufficient means and adequate equipment no institution can do the best possible work.

To bring about better conditions in medical education three things are recommended by the Foundation:

1. The creation of a public opinion which shall discriminate between ill-trained and ^{Recommendations} rightly trained physicians, and at the same time the enactment of laws that will require all prospective practitioners of medicine to ground themselves in the fundamentals upon which medical science rests.

2. Establishing the best possible conditions in the universities and in their attitude towards medical standards and medical support.

3. Securing the proper attitude of members of the medical profession towards standards of their own practice and towards their sense of honor with respect to their own profession.

The last two are admittedly appeals to loyalty towards the profession and, hence, more moral than anything else. It is an appeal to the fact that a university or a profession has a mission which is greater and more important than mere numbers—in other words that standards of common honesty, of intellectual sincerity, and of scientific accuracy, are of more value to the world and to the individual than that a university shall have

a large student-body or institutional completeness, or that medical men shall have opportunities as demonstrators and instructors.

The difference between medicine as a business and medicine as a profession should be clearly seen both by the public and by the youth solicited by the prospective advantages of medical study. And in medicine, as in other professions, the need of a good general education as a preliminary must be made clear.

"The interests of the general public have been so generally lost sight of in this matter that the public has in a large measure forgotten that it has any interests to protect;" and yet "Not only the personal well-being of each citizen, but national, state, and municipal sanitation rests upon the quality of the training which the medical graduate has received." The report contains an interesting chapter on the history of the development of the medical profession in the United States, as well as a valuable chapter on "The Actual Basis of Medical Education," a number of chapters on questions of general management, and a brief outline of the equipment of medical schools in the several States.

Commercial Education

Private "business colleges" have often practised methods that have brought discredit upon the term Commercial Education. "They have made the dollar the standard in education and the diploma a key to unlock a well-paid position." Positions and a minimum salary are guaranteed as an inducement to take their courses and, for a stipulated sum, they have guaranteed to put their pupils "through." In this way such education has been commercialized and given a low place in scholarly esteem. From this condition a better class of commercial schools is slowly arising and establishing for itself a more honorable place.

One of the first of these, and still a leading one, is the Wharton School of Finance and Accounts, established at the University of Pennsylvania in 1881. At first it had but a two years' course which was superimposed upon the first two years of the college course. But, since 1895, it has had the full four-year course and has greatly broadened its scope. Since the year 1900 there has been a rapid increase in similar schools, especially in connection with large universities.

Wharton
School of
Finance

This has been a marked advance over conditions of a century ago, when boys who chose business careers had to reach them through long apprenticeships. The quality of the instruction then received depended upon the intelligence and integrity of the employer, but never was very high. The business of the country grew with such rapidity that apprenticeship proved too slow and, between the years 1830 and 1890, great numbers of Schools of Business sprang up, representing all degrees of merit and charlatanism, until the term Business College came to mean very little as a standard of intelligence or of real business preparation.

All of this has to be remedied and the odium lived down. On the whole, however, these schools have been of real service, at least in calling attention to a real public need and in pioneering the movement which is leading to the establishment of a better type of work. As soon as commercial education became a part of the public school work, standardization naturally began and, with the influence from above of the university schools, has proceeded at a rapid pace. A fundamental difficulty lies in the fact that business is not an organized profession like medicine and law, although in some of its departments, as in accounting, banking, and finance, a professional basis is rapidly building up.

At present there are three main types of higher commercial institutions, the difference being mainly in the

relative emphasis each places upon liberal as compared with the technical business education. The dean of
 Types the New York University School of Commerce, Joseph French Johnson, classifies these as follows: The first type is represented by the schools connected with the University of Pennsylvania and the University of Wisconsin where the liberal and the technical are about evenly balanced. The second type is represented in Dartmouth and Harvard, where the liberal education is given first and the practical afterwards. The third type is exemplified in the University of New York and the Northwestern University in which the liberal is reduced to a minimum, the major portion of the time being given up to the professional phase of the work. In all of them a good four years' high school training is regarded as a sufficient basis for taking up the work.

A recent movement of great importance, on the part of these higher type commercial schools, has been in the direction of holding sessions in them in the late afternoon and during the evening to give an opportunity for securing technical training to those actively engaged in business. The plan not only makes it possible for such to attend but also for the schools to secure expert business men as instructors or as practical assistants to the regular professors.

There has been such a demand for men with advanced commercial training which will enable them to take charge of the foreign relations of large business firms, that the University of Chicago has made such training a part of the course to be given in their "Consular" school. The object of this department of the University work is to prepare graduates for the consular service of the United States, as well as for these business positions. The course provides for two years' work and it is superimposed upon at least two years of undergraduate work.

PART IV

CHAPTER VI

MATTERS AFFECTING THE EMOLUMENTS AND PROFESSIONAL STANDING OF TEACHERS

Complaints

A GREAT many complaints in regard to their work have emanated from teachers within recent months. Such of these as have been about the work of teaching itself, of course, deserve no consideration whatever. But many of them have been about the conditions under which teachers have to work. These deserve recognition and, when true, remedy; for most communities are now putting more money into education than into any other single public function, and it makes a tremendous difference whether the center of educational influence, the teacher, is sound at heart and contented, or is rebellious and discontented. Young people at their most impressionable age are intimately associated for five of the best hours of the day, and for the best working months of the year, with their teachers. Hence, the community, the State, and all officials who are directly concerned in the management of these teachers, owe it to the children to have them under the instruction of people who are not only happy and interested in their work to the point of inspiration, but thoroughly trained for it as well. Aside from the necessary professional training that all teachers should have, there are two very direct influences that affect the welfare and the feelings of the teacher. These are (1) the emoluments of the teacher and (2) the influences tending to improve the professional standing of the teacher.

The emoluments of the teacher, aside from the general satisfactions coming to effective work in any profession, are: (a) the salary received and (b) the assurances coming from retirement or pension funds.

Teachers' Salaries

The Committee appointed by the National Education Association to investigate the question of teachers' salaries, made the following brief but comprehensive statement to that body at the 1903 meeting: "Teaching in the public schools will not be a suitably attractive and permanent career, nor will it command as much of the ability of the country as it should, until the teachers are properly compensated and are assured of an undisturbed tenure during efficiency and good behavior. A large part of the teacher's reward must always be the pleasure in the character and quality of the work done; but the money compensation of the teacher should be sufficient to maintain an appropriate standard of living. Legislative measures to give support to these principles deserve the approval of the press and the people."

That the men of the country are not finding teaching a suitably attractive and permanent career is shown in the fact that, in the United States since 1870, the proportion of male teachers has diminished from 41 per cent. to 21 per cent. And there is constant danger under low salaries in any line of work that it will command only mediocre talent. In teaching, above all other occupations, the best that it is possible to secure is needed. And human services, from the commercial side, are governed by the same laws as other commodities. If we are in the market for the best, we must pay the best prices; for choice commodities are limited in quantity. But if we are in the market for the cheapest, we may often set our own prices; for the supply is

N. E. A.
Report

Dearth of
Male
Teachers

practically unlimited. However, we should always remember that, in the case of the cheapest teachers, the possibility of loss, irremediable loss to the children, is also without limit.

Aside from the fact that there should be a larger percentage of strong male teachers in our schools for the same general reason that the presence of both father and mother makes the stronger home, there is an additional reason why it is advisable; and that is, the greater permanency that it would naturally give to the teacher's calling. Fully 5 per cent. of the teaching force of our large cities has to be renewed each year through the marriage, ill-health, or withdrawal of female teachers. The proportion of loss is much larger in rural districts, owing to the tendency to change over to city positions. This is unfortunate for the children; for in no calling is frequent change so disastrous. But salaries must be sufficient to make men regard teaching as a permanent calling or they add little to its stability and results. Teaching cannot possibly rise to the dignity of a profession without this stability of permanency as an occupation. Any occupation that is regarded by its followers as a more or less temporary employment becomes what the economist calls a "marginal occupation," with only the pay and the standing of such positions.

With regard to a proper standard of living for the teacher to be able to maintain, the Illinois Educational Commission, in its report made in 1909, had this to say: "This is not a simple problem of food, clothing, and shelter; for the teacher must have more, *i.e.*, the means of culture and recreation, of a standard enabling the teacher to command the social respect of any pupil in his class or with whose people he should be able to mingle as an equal. Anything below this is false economy." Underneath the feeling which sometimes leads a man of influence to select a private school for his children, is his impression of a lower social order for the public

school-teacher—a condition for which, if it were true, he as an influential man would be largely responsible.

Investigations all show that teachers' salaries do not compare favorably with the remuneration of other oc-

Earnings
in other
Occupations cupations. A fair comparison always must contrast the pay of a successful teacher with that of a successful person in the other occupation. A recent comparison of this sort, based on the opinion of competent men, gives between four and five thousand dollars as the average yearly net earnings of a good lawyer or engineer in New York; while successful doctors earn even more. There are but a few professors, and they of the highest rank, in Columbia University who receive that much. According to the statements of the Carnegie Foundation, in 1905, the average salary of a college professor in the United States was \$1376; for male teachers of the public schools in 1908 the average was less than \$750; and for female teachers but little over \$600. Besides, in other callings, great ability commands exceptional rewards—in the case of a great lawyer or a great doctor many times the earnings of a merely successful man. The president of a great university or the eminently successful superintendent of a large school system must be content with far less than a successful man in many other callings, even though he brings into his work ability of the highest order.

REASONS FOR LOW SALARIES.—The Illinois Commission accounts for the prevalence of low wages for teachers by saying:

1. They do not conform to the general law of wages. The laborer's product is a commodity to be bought and sold and, if profits are high, employers at once know it and seek to increase their product. Hence, they invest more capital and demand more labor and this demand tends to increase the pay of the laborer. But the product of the teacher's labor is not as directly apparent, especially on its earning capacity side, as education

accrues gradually to the child; hence, the work of the teacher does not appeal so directly to the interests of his employers and depends more upon sentiment and "what is customary."

2. They are not sustained by the usual standard of living, since so many teachers do not depend upon their salaries for entire support. This is greatly emphasized by the number of young women who teach "for experience," or to earn pin-money in the period between school-days and matrimony; and, hence, they can afford to accept any salary offered.

3. Men in country districts (and even in city schools, and in high schools, colleges, and universities) sometimes rely chiefly on some other occupation than teaching for much of their support and, hence, are willing to accept low wages.

4. The law of supply and demand cannot be greatly relied upon for raising teachers' salaries: (a) for the above reasons; and (b) because, in case of the teacher, it works so slowly.

5. Finally, a most fruitful source of low salaries is the fact that teaching is expert service and the employers of the teachers are as a rule not competent judges of the value of the service rendered. This bears two results that are unfavorable to the teacher: (a) teachers are not sought for nor paid on the basis of efficiency; and (b) direct appreciation of the value of their services to the community and to the State develops but slowly.

Salaries in foreign countries may at first glance seem small; but when it is remembered that the \$1200 with which a university professor starts in Berlin is increased to \$1800, and that he receives this full salary for life, with a guaranteed pension to his widow and children, the actual average is higher than it is in the United States. The German professor has several very material additional advantages. He usually receives an adequate allowance for house-rent

Salaries
Abroad

and, if a gifted man, often receives from student fees and from perquisites for outside state services sums that raise his salary to double that of an American professor. Besides, while enjoying by virtue of his position a higher social standing, he lives under a social régime in which expenditures are not nearly so large as in America.

The Teachers' Salaries Conference of Chicago has made a study of salaries as compared with the cost of living and has issued a pamphlet entitled "A Comparison of Increase in Cost of Living and Elementary Teachers' Salaries." According to the data obtained, a salary of \$1000 in 1898 was equivalent to a salary of over \$1200 at the present time. As the salaries of Chicago teachers have practically remained stationary during this period, the effect of the higher cost of living has been to reduce \$1000 salaries to a basis of but little over \$800 per year.

Briefly stated, the whole salary question may be summed up in the two statements:

Summary 1. Higher salaries should be paid for teaching because, in general, a relatively higher type of ability is demanded and actually employed in the work than is the case in any other calling.

2. It is imperative upon all who are truly interested in the welfare of the child and in the safety and progress of the State, that the standard of ability for teaching be constantly and consistently raised; and this demands salaries that will attract and permanently hold the highest available talent.

But there is another side to the question which the teacher himself must not forget. For many teachers are always in debt because of a lack of mastery, in practice, of the simplest principles of money-husbandry. Common-sense, self-discipline, self-denial, and forehandedness, are as necessary to the financial comfort of the teacher, regardless of his salary, as they are to anyone else. Authorities are beginning

Salaries
and Cost
of Living

The Other
Side of the
Question

to notice the extravagance and money recklessness of some teachers. And, unfortunately, the thoughtlessness of some is apt to affect the welfare of all.

Then, too, teachers must not forget that the schools are supported by taxation and that their maintenance is one of the largest items of public expense. While liberal salaries and liberal support bring rich returns to a community, we must not lose sight of the fact that what a community may be able to do has its limits. If we are comparing what it gives with what others give, we must be fair and compare it with others of like ability. If we are emphasizing what it should do, we must be business-like enough to show practical ways for doing it. Teachers are, first of all, men and women responsible for civic duties as others are responsible; and we can no longer afford to rest under an accusation of being unbusiness-like and always to be depended upon as advocates for spending more public money, especially if some of it is to come back to us in the form of increased salaries.

As citizens, we should be deeply and intelligently interested in seeing that our community gets a full dollar's worth of value for every dollar expended in any public way. And this includes all other interests as well as the educational. Of course, in educational matters we should be both leaders and experts but not the kind of leaders and experts that have no regard to other interests. No class of persons in a community have a better opportunity to learn the broad general needs of the community than its teachers. This arises from their work being partly the broad public work of preparing pupils to meet in the best way the public need, and partly through its being so intimately in touch with the home around which the real community life and community interest center.

SOME SALARY INCREASES.—At the fall meeting of the Yale University Corporation, of which President Taft is a member, at New Haven in September, the

salaries of the professors of the University were raised, while at the same time the period in which increases are granted was lowered. \$3000 is now the normal salary of an assistant professor after the expiration of his second term. In the case of full professorships the salaries now range from \$4000 to \$5000, according to the length of service, the responsibility of the position, and the professor's individual distinction as a scholar and a teacher. The salaries of instructors remain on the old basis of \$1000 to \$1600.

Yale
Increases

A new salary schedule has gone into effect in Milwaukee. Supt. Pearse has the following good words to say about its adoption: "It is particularly gratifying to learn that this was not done under pressure from those who were to benefit by the increase, and not as a result of a crusade or public agitation. The new schedule was planned by the Board on its own initiative, and in the belief that not only were larger salaries merited, but also that the conditions of the times were such that they were greatly needed, and in the belief, further, that the people of the community were able and willing to pay the better salaries."

Milwaukee
Increases

This new schedule gives to principals an increase over the salaries in force six years ago of from 30 to 50 per cent., and to teachers an increase the maximum of which is 60 per cent. In the payment of salaries a change has been made from the former ten installments per year to twelve. The eleventh payment is made with the tenth at the end of the term in June, and the twelfth is made just after the opening of school in September. This provides for the extra funds needed for vacation and for the replenishment of the impoverished pocket-books at the opening of the new term, and it is confidently expected that it will prove a considerable convenience to teachers.

An interesting salary situation has developed at the University of Pennsylvania. For some years, several

noted Philadelphia physicians have been members of the medical faculty of that institution, on the basis of delivering several lectures per week. At the opening of the fall term in 1910, with a view of better serving the needs of the students and more nearly meeting the conditions of modern professorships, these men were asked to give their full time, or at the least the major portion of it, to instruction. But each one declined for the very ostensible reason that he could not afford to give up a practice that far exceeds in income what any institution of learning is now paying. The benefits of the extended practical experience of these men are thus lost to this noted school, as is so often the case in educational affairs, through the more remunerative calls of other lines of work.

Medical
Lecturers

EQUALIZATION OF SALARIES FOR MEN AND WOMEN TEACHERS.—This is a question which has kept the teachers of New York City in a state of unrest for the last four years. A strong organization of women teachers secured from the Legislature, in 1907, an Act which equalized salaries. This was known as the White Bill, but it was vetoed by the Mayor of the city who has such privilege. It was then passed over his veto but was not signed by Governor Hughes, who in his veto message said he was unwilling to assent "unless the Legislature were prepared to lay down the general principle (of equal pay for men and women holding like positions) for the entire State and for the entire public service."

The New
York
Movement

In 1909, the Legislature again passed the bill and it was again vetoed by the Mayor of New York but, according to his own statements, only on the ground of the additional expense that it would involve. In his veto message, however, he promised to appoint a commission to study and report upon the whole question. This he finally did and Mr. Gustav H. Schwab, Charles H. Keep, and Professor John B. Clark served as the com-

mittee. Whether or not we agree with their conclusions they must appeal to all as being fairly determined and uttered with the freedom and fearlessness which the importance of the subject demands. The conclusions they reached were as follows:

"In the general market for labor, men command higher wages than women. The fact imposes hardship on the women who have children or relatives dependent upon them, and favors men who have no one to support but themselves. It has a beneficent effect in the case of married women and young children whose support is provided by a male wage-earner."

"Schools, both public and private, depend for their supply of teachers upon the general labor-market and, if they pay what the market demands, they are forced to give to men more than they give to women of the same grade of ability and attainments. One reason for this is that teaching is one of the best occupations open on a large scale to women and, therefore, attracts them in large numbers; while to men many other occupations are open which are, on the whole, more remunerative and attractive."

"If we pass from the facts that are unquestionable to those which may be questioned, but are sanctioned by a nearly universal opinion, we may affirm that, in the general view, the education of children and youths is most effective when there are both men and women among their teachers. There may well be many more women than men, and in the lower grades no men are needed; but wherever the minds of the pupils fail altogether to be brought into touch with the minds of the men, there is a loss in education. Parents are generally unwilling to have their sons educated nearly to maturity by women alone, and many of them prefer that their daughters should supplement the more long continued influence that they receive from feminine teachers by some influence from masculine intellects."

Against the widely prevailing opinion that the executive positions should in general be held by men the committee has this to say: "A school system officered only by men would be improved by changing many of them for women; and one conducted wholly by women would be improved by exchanging some of them for men; since neither sex accomplishes the best results when it works quite alone."

"Collective efficiency in its teaching force rather than merely individual cases of efficiency, is what should be sought for by the management of any school or system of schools. And to this end both men and women need to be employed in educating the young and it is safe to affirm that in all probability school systems will actually do this."

What the proportion of men and women in a school system should be or what special contribution each sex makes to the efficiency of the system, are matters which would furnish profitable investigation.

Early in 1910, the Board of Education of New York took up the question of granting equal pay to male and female teachers. But the resolution to equalize their pay was defeated by a vote of 16 to 23. This was at a special meeting called to consider the subject. This disposes of the subject for the present unless the New York Legislature intervenes and overrules the Board of Education and compels them to adopt the principle which they have rejected. It is interesting to note that, of the four women members of the Board, three of them voted against the resolution—an act which must have required some courage.

The *Outlook* for April 2, 1910, commenting upon this action said: "There are two fundamental objections to this specious but unsound aphorism. The first is that men and women cannot do equal work. The ablest of men cannot do as good work in teaching a kindergarten as a competent woman; the ablest woman

cannot do as good work in superintending a school of boys from 14 to 18 as a competent man. The little children need a woman's influence, which a man cannot exercise. The boys in their teens need a man's influence, which a woman cannot exercise.

"The other objection is that it is the business of a Board of Education to secure the best teachers they can for the money which is furnished them. They are to administer the schools in the interests of the children, not in the interests of the teachers. The law of supply and demand may not absolutely control the rate of wages, but it is not to be disregarded in determining the rate of wages. To these objections may be added a third: If this principle were adopted, and the women's pay were raised to equal the amount now paid men, many women teachers would be discharged and men would take their places, because women are now doing work which men could do better. If, on the other hand, the equalization were made reducing the men's wages to the sums now paid to the women, there would be a general exodus of men from the public schools, which would become a wholly feminine institution, and this would almost inevitably be followed by an exodus of many of the male pupils, with disastrous results to the community."

Teachers' Pensions

No consideration of the remuneration of the Teacher is complete in these days without giving due attention to the question of retirement funds and their administration. There has been a rapid growth of the retirement idea within the last few years, owing to: (1) the additional strength that it is giving the school systems where it has been adopted, through the withdrawal of superannuated teachers and the injection of more vigorous blood; (2) the opportunity that it provides for taking care of strong sympathy-cases which otherwise

it would be difficult or detrimental to the school to provide for; and (3) owing to the strong appeal that it is making to the teachers themselves.

In all of the older European countries, the practice of retiring teachers has gained a strong foothold. The grounds on which these pensions have been granted in these countries apply equally well here. They are:

1. Experience shows that, in the long run, the calling or profession that attracts able men does so on the two considerations of the reward to be gained or the honor to be won. While some enter upon teaching because of a personal preference for the work, in the end this is not to be depended upon. As a rule, teachers abroad are government officials and it is regarded as an honor to have served and then become a pensioner of the government. And it pays to dignify the teacher's position by the highest social and official honors. Besides, it is difficult to secure for the teacher the financial rewards that are open in other callings to intelligence, judgment, and enterprise; hence, pensions which guarantee comfort in old age are helpful in securing teachers of ability.

Reasons
for Pensions

2. Teachers should not remain in the school-room too late in life and, as they are largely unfitted because of their occupation and training for any other calling, they are comparatively helpless as wage-earners when they leave the school-room.

3. Other civil and military officers of the government are pensioned, and fairness to the teachers demands that they also should be pensioned.

Provision for pensions, made by the teachers themselves in the higher institutions abroad, was begun in the early part of last century, when the professors of the various universities formed associations for the purpose and made voluntary contributions with the express object of protecting the widows and orphans of their own number. But, in recent years, the State has taken

over the entire duty upon itself. The professors themselves receive full salary as long as they live, even though they become entirely incapacitated by illness or old age. This guaranteed salary and the provision made for the family serve in a large measure to counterbalance the attractions of business and other professions; hence, in Germany, talent of the highest order seeks teaching as a profession.

One of the greatest advantages of a liberal retirement allowance is the satisfactory way in which it is removing the disquieting uncertainty that has in many cases heretofore accompanied the limited income of the teacher. This disquietude prevents hearty devotion to work; for few situations are more trying than to see old age approach with slender means of support for self and for family. The teacher is not apt to save, owing largely to the demands of a social position which is higher than his pay. A liberal retirement allowance should therefore come to him in his old age, not as an act of charity but as his right, because he has been of exceptional value to his community and to his State and to his country.

The Government of the United States provides a retiring allowance of 75 per cent. of the active pay to all the officers of the army and navy. They are compelled to retire at the age of 64. Whether an age limit for the compulsory retirement of teachers should be set still remains an open question. The Carnegie Foundation, which has done so much through its liberal pension scheme for college-professors, fixes the age-limit for securing the benefits of the retirement fund at 65. Many existing retirement plans fix the age at which pensions may be drawn at 60.

The fund for paying pensions to army and navy officers is based on the estimate that the pensioners will number approximately 30 per cent. of the number in active service at any one time. But, of course, these

estimates are based on a compulsory retirement plan in peculiarly hazardous callings. The maximum number in a properly managed retirement plan for teachers need not exceed 6 or 7 per cent.

The present thought seems to be that all retirement schemes should provide for at least three things:

1. A fair retiring salary at the end of a specified service, or at a certain age, or both combined.

2. An emergency salary for a longer or shorter period of physical breakdown—satisfactory proofs of this to be given to the physician who should always be employed in connection with the administration of a pension fund.

3. A fair proportion of the retiring pay due to a teacher should be paid to his widow.

New York now devotes 5 per cent. of all excise taxes to a pension fund for its teachers. This yields about \$300,000 annually. In Philadelphia an annual appropriation of \$50,000 is made for the same purpose, the teachers themselves each contributing an additional 1 or 2 per cent. according to the salary received. From being exclusively the work of the teachers themselves there is now scarcely a city, which provides a fund for pension purposes, that does not assist the teachers in some liberal way.

Pension
Funds

The Training of Teachers

GENERAL PROBLEMS.—The criticisms of the Public School that have been current during the past few years have centered, very naturally, around the quality of the teaching. In order to protect themselves, this has led some teachers to criticise the school administrators; while these, in turn, have fallen back upon that well-cudgelled individual, the politician. As a matter of fact there has been, especially within more recent years, a very creditable progress in school affairs that pertain to the training and work of the teacher, in the control exercised by

the school administrator, and even in a real interest in the School on the part of many a "politician."

A better understanding of this progress is gotten by contrasting present conditions with conditions fifty years ago. Scientific teaching has had practically all of its developments since then; psychology as an aid to the teacher was at first derided; the A. B. C. method of teaching reading then prevailed and most children were at least a year in learning to read the simplest sentences; there was no manual training, no drawing or art work as we now have it; there was no illustrated work; little effort was made to inculcate a love of literature; only the dry facts of geography and the mere skeleton of history were taught; technical grammar was emphasized rather than the use of good language; school buildings were heated by stoves and there was no provision whatever for ventilation; furniture was home-made and uncomfortable and the teacher was also usually janitor. Medical inspection of the school had not been thought of and personal and public hygiene received little or no attention. Training schools for teachers were in their infancy and in most of the States heard of but unknown. But this is not saying that since then greater progress both might and should have been made, nor that there has not been unbusiness-like management of the schools and a lack of the best training and spirit in the class-room.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.—There has been great improvement in training schools for teachers. There is a growing feeling that teaching now has back of it a large body of scientific theory and a practice which is of service both as a guide and as an inspiration. This is leading our normal schools to a gradual raising of the standard of admittance and to the adoption of four-year courses instead of the two-year courses that have prevailed. Graduate courses in pedagogy have also been established in most of our large universities. Teaching is becoming more firmly established as a profession.

But there are several things that are operating against the best service of many of our teachers' training schools:

1. These schools are usually, probably wisely, the children of the State in which they are located. This places them in a precarious condition in regard to their financial support. Being so largely dependent upon the public moneys and the vote of more or less indifferent, ignorant, selfish or unsympathetic legislators, they have found it difficult to be as independent and as progressive and courageous in their standards as they should be. Lack of
Independ-
ence

2. In order to work out their general purpose of elevating the character of teaching, they have found it necessary to spend much of their time upon increasing and improving the knowledge of their prospective teachers, and this has compelled work that is more nearly academic than professional. This has made it impossible with the material at their command and within their limited time for them to reach a high standard in either kind of work; hence, they naturally have not secured the highest respect of other professions or of either college men or experienced educators.

As Dean J. E. Russell has said (see *The Teachers' College Record*, Vol. 1, p. 8), "they" (the normal schools) "have been knocked about by politicians, starved by legislators, ignored by scholars, despised by practical educators. The effect has been to make them both timid and conservative. They have also been inclined to admit upon a low standard rather than run serious risks in regard to numbers, especially since the demand for their graduates has seemed to warrant the opening wide of their doors to all who would come in."

The number of normal schools that are changing to the four-years' course is an indication of the growing demand for a better type of work, and also shows a more fearless and progressive spirit in their management.

That it will effect great and beneficial changes in the work of the teacher cannot be doubted.

There is also a rapidly increasing demand for teachers able to do various kinds of specific work, such as the instruction of backward and defective pupils and the teaching of such special subjects as manual training and the vocational arts. If these new needs are to be met it will mean both a broadening and a strengthening of the work of the normal schools; for such special teachers should, in the first place, have a good general training as teachers and then have superimposed upon such training careful instruction in these special features of modern educational work. This will mean an increase in expense for equipment and maintenance which should be recognized and met with liberality by the management and by the legislators.

But this liberality and this broadening and strengthening of the work should be assured. There is need of the kind of legislation which will place all such institutions, within a State, upon a broad and reliable financial basis. But with this interest and aid of the State should go a systematic effort to secure uniformity of excellence. If certification of teachers by the State is to mean anything it should mean equality of opportunity and equality of standard to be maintained in all institutions permitted to train for such certificates. While purely local needs and purely local standards may receive some consideration in the course of study for a community, or even of a group of communities, without violation of the rights of the child, the State should, as the larger unit, train its teachers for equally effective service anywhere within its borders.

And this suggests two things which these training schools should themselves do. A study of the catalogues of our various normal schools, as well as of some other schools for the training of teachers, reveals an entirely too

general dearth in them of clear and specific statements as to the time devoted to particular subjects. Nor are the standards to be met indicated in any more definite way. "The character and the extent of the training are often given in so loose a way that the reader can form no idea of just what the school stands for in the most important feature of the work." (H. N. Loomis in Ed. Review for May, 1910.) The very fact that these institutions receive so much direct aid from the State suggests that, for their own protection, it would be well to avoid merely general statements on such definite matters. There is little doubt that this lack of detailed and specific statement has worked to the disadvantage of the graduates of such schools on the occasions when definite information in regard to their training has been sought, as well as when comparisons have been made between their normal school education and the education furnished in other professions.

Normal schools are beginning to realize the importance of observing and testing the work of their graduates. Several now employ trained visitors, who go into the class rooms of their graduates to learn the points of strength or weakness of the training, as they reveal themselves under actual conditions. This is a work which all teachers' training schools should do both for their own protection and for their own information. Whether or not it is fully justified, there is an impression prevalent among practical educators that normal schools, more than any other kind of professional training school, lack initiative and manifest an indisposition to study and to meet changing conditions. While a public training school for teachers should be a place to be relied upon for substantial training in the fundamental things, no other place enjoys quite the opportunity for solving the new pedagogical problems nor for trying out experiments. With a faculty of professed experts in the work of teaching and in the

Testing
Work of
Graduates

principles underlying it, with one or more practice schools, and with an alumni pursuing various lines of educational work and teaching under almost all conceivable conditions, it should be possible for such schools to get at fundamental truths and workable principles and practices.

SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS.—The shortage of properly trained teachers continues. The past year has been a particularly favorable one for able and ambitious teachers seeking to improve their position. The tendency of normal schools to increase the length of the training course has increased this dearth of teachers, although its ultimate effect is bound to be most beneficial.

Business opportunities and low salaries have served to accentuate a phase of the supply that has caused a great deal of anxiety to close observers of educational affairs. This is the marked decrease in the relative number of male teachers. In an article written some months ago (see *World's Work* for May, 1908) Dr. G. Stanley Hall called attention to what he regards as a "Feminization in School and Home" that is rapidly taking place. At that time only 21 per cent. of the entire teaching body in the United States were males and in some States less than 10 per cent., and even these proportions were steadily decreasing.

While women's influence may very properly preponderate in the lowest grades, Doctor Hall regards it as essential that boys, and probably girls also, as they approach puberty have a touch of the influence of a male teacher. If the father as well as the mother is essential to the proper upbringing of the child in the home, then both male and female are needed for proper education in the school, which stands in place of the home for the best working hours of the day and during the most important working years of the life.

Several direct effects of this relative dearth of male teachers are noticeable:

1. Salaries tend to remain on the basis of a woman's pay as it is rated in the business world, rather than to rise to the level of a man's pay in the professional world.

2. The teaching body is entirely too unstable—too large a proportion of teachers leave every year owing to marriage, ill health, and lack of the necessity for self-support.

3. Instinctively a boy in his teens tends to draw away from, and in a measure to resent, the influence of the other sex. This tends to a weakening of the bond of sympathy and the recognition of authority between boys and the female teacher.

4. Both boys and girls are living through the various stages of primitive instincts. During this period, nature is full of coercion and penalties for law-breaking and both sexes need the touch of the more vigorous control to break up "volitional cramp" and "prolong the plastic, receptive stages" of life.

TEACHERS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS.—This admittedly is a most serious problem. If the success of the farm is so essential to our welfare as a nation, here is where especially good teaching should be done. And yet there is nothing to counterbalance the high salaries and better opportunities for advancement and for self-development offered by the cities, excepting mere sentiment. There is a feeling that, aside from the interest in having lessons in agriculture placed in the curriculum, there is relatively little attention being given to the rural schools. There are grave charges of waste and inefficiency in them and a general impression that their work is far behind that of the city schools prevails. Consequently it is well to consider what is being done for the improvement of conditions which we hope may not be as bad as they are so often depicted.

Aside from most of the general problems which arise in all school work, the rural school has special problems of management and social conditions to solve. Its

problems in the teaching of agriculture and domestic economy also present different phases from what they present under urban conditions. That the teacher preparing for rural school work needs some modifications in her course of training seems clear. That the rural school itself must undergo great changes if the most effective work is to be done is equally clear.

In discussing the training of teachers for rural school work, the recent report of the Massachusetts State Board of Education has this to say: "Until recently it was thought that observation and practice in highly organized graded schools furnished ideal conditions for Normal school students, and opportunities for such practice have been provided. Now it is seen that the graduates who go out into ungraded schools have to face wholly new conditions. In their efforts to adjust themselves to their environment, there is a waste of time and strength, and their training counts for less than it ought. In order to strengthen the normal schools at this point, arrangements have been made with school authorities in several towns by which some of their ungraded schools may be used by the normal students for observation and practice."

In various parts of the West, normal schools are meeting this part of the rural school need by the establishment of *model* district or rural schools as part of their regular equipment for the training of teachers. As the majority of the pupils under training in our State normal schools are preparing to teach in the country schools, such practice schools are meeting a real need. But they are doing more than the mere training of rural school teachers; for they are serving as standards of what the country school may be, and thus are furnishing plenty of inspiration for visiting teachers and school-officers from the country districts.

In his article on the Normal Schools and the Rural School Problem (see p. 197), Prof. Loomis refers particu-

larly to the work done under the direction of the Western Illinois State Normal School in what is known as its Country Training School at Macomb, Illinois. The first and immediate aim of this training school, as stated in a circular, was "to take up a typical, needy, inefficient country school and build it up through all obstacles to the greatest possible degree of efficiency for the community in which it was located. The second and general aim was to further the cause of education throughout the State."

A Model
Rural
School

The teacher put in charge of the work was chosen from the rank and file of the country teachers. The idea throughout the experiment, which was begun in 1906, was to make it safe to assume that what was done at Macomb could be done anywhere. The results accomplished up to the present are spoken of as follows: "The condition of the school buildings and grounds has been greatly changed; a new concrete basement has been made under the school; two new outbuildings have been built; a new furnace, new seats, clock, bookcase, kindergarten chairs, curtains, rugs, piano etc. have been added. A neighborhood awakening and pride in both parents and children in the school as a local institution have sprung up. It has fired the ambition of quite a number of normal-school students, and some are already in rural schools working intelligently along these lines for rural-school betterment. Students have actually volunteered to teach in the country schools."

Professor Loomis also refers to the aid that some normal schools are extending to rural school teachers, by issuing for them printed matter on various topics; by the loaning to them of library books; by establishing lecture bureaus and sending different members of the faculty into the country to address and instruct rural teachers and school patrons; by instituting conferences for the consideration of means for making the country school the power that it should be. It is possible in certain

States for rural school teachers to pursue a course of professional study by mail and to have their work credited.

Notwithstanding what is being done, one cannot help but feel that it is only a beginning and that the rural schools have not yet received the consideration
Needs that their importance to the Republic demands.

That great changes are occurring in rural society and that the rural school is not meeting the needs brought about through these changes and, therefore, is losing its influence, and failing in its purpose, is no mere chimera of the social reformer and of the educator.

The problem of expense in providing suitable buildings, with proper equipment, is one of grave concern. The getting together of a sufficient number of children to form an inspiring school organization and the holding of them together for a relatively long term, often furnish almost unsurmountable difficulties. The ability both to secure and retain well trained teachers is serious, in view of the financial burden it often imposes upon communities which are both small and money-poor. But under the growing interest in scientific farming and in vocational work in the schools, and with a developing disposition on the part of the State to render both financial and advisory aid, the outlook is becoming more promising.

Psychology

The augmenting interest of society in the education of the mentally deficient—an interest that is now insisting not so much upon equal opportunity for all as upon the best opportunity for each—is leading psychologists to pay more and more attention to abnormal mental conditions. Incidentally, normal psychology is benefiting by these investigations, especially in the realm of Suggestion and in the field of the subnormal mental activities.

Psychology
of the
Abnormal

There is a strong tendency to make society and social conditions largely responsible for many of the mental states which result in dislike of schoolwork, inefficiency, and bad behavior; the environment even being held responsible for much of the physical weakness and criminality. While the psychology of introspection is still held as being extremely valuable, these changing views are giving a constantly increasing importance to social psychology—the psychology of the group.

Gustave LeBon, in the introduction to his psychological study called "The Crowd" (published by T. Fisher Unwin, London), says, "The whole of the common characteristics with which heredity endows the individuals of a race constitute the genius of the race. When, however, a certain number of these individuals are gathered together in a crowd for the purposes of action, observation proves that, from the mere fact of their being assembled, there result certain new psychological characteristics, which are added to the racial characteristics and differ from them at times to a very considerable degree."

Psychology
of the
Group

"Organized crowds have always played an important part in the life of peoples, but the part has never been of such moment as at present. The substitution of the unconscious action of crowds for the conscious activity of individuals, is one of the principal characteristics of the present age."

Children of a certain age are largely under the influence of imitation in their volitions, and even the best of them sometimes surprise parents and teacher by breaking away from worthy imitations under the influence of the crowd. The same is true of the adult, who is supposed to do his own reasoning and to be much more fully responsible for his own volitions.

These facts are giving an increasing importance to sociology or the study of the group, as a fundamental part of all pedagogical training. They are also leading

the teacher to a careful study of Social psychology, or how people act in groups, as an aid in solving his practical difficulties with the individual, who so often acts in an unaccountable way in the presence of the group. These studies are giving to educators such helpful books as Edward A. Ross's "Social Psychology" (published by MacMillan), the chapter on "Suggestibility" being of especial value to the teacher.

PSYCHOLOGY AND THE TEACHER.—Dr. Münsterberg, in his new book "Psychology and the Teacher," treats the problems of the teacher in their broadest aspect. With many other psychologists he is beginning to see the broad sweep of the teacher's tasks which has come about through the new ideal that education must be a training for life and not simply the imparting of knowledge.

His book urges a reform in education which is not to be effected by the mere introduction of psychology into the teacher's work, but by furnishing high ideals and inspiration to teachers, while at the same time seeing that they are furnished with the scientific means of realizing their ideals. Psychology is to be of service in furnishing the means.

As the purpose of education is preparation for life, the problems of the school cannot be effectively approached until the ideals of life have first been clearly defined. Doctor Münsterberg speaks of two prevalent ideals, *the pursuit of pleasure* and *the realization of eternal values*. The first, having for its basis only personal gratification, he regards as unworthy. True values should not be simply for the individual nor of a merely temporary character; they should be for all and eternal in their nature.

His psychological data emphasize the idea that all consciousness has a motor aspect, every stimulus tending to be transformed into an action. This transformation has however its stages. These are the cause; an

intermediate part, which is accompanied by perceptions, memories, feelings etc.; and the action, which is determined by the channel of motor activity which the stimulus, as transformed in the intermediate stage, finds open. There is a most intimate connection between the mental state and these motor activities, or, as Professor Münsterberg puts it, "We think because we are acting" and what we think and feel depends upon what we do.

As the teacher, both by formal teaching and by example, so greatly influences the emotional life of the child, a great responsibility rests upon him in his work as a teacher. But it means great opportunity as well as great responsibility. The power of suggestion is of especial value, and the teacher who can make the child feel that it is worth while can secure effort that is worth while.

Interesting and valuable applications of psychology, especially upon the experimental side, to other lines of work than the educational continue. Many medical specialists are coming to use psychological methods more or less extensively in the treatment of nervous and mental diseases. Even the general practitioner is finding that psychological knowledge may be made to reinforce the effects of his other curative agencies.

Other Ap-
plications

The discovery of the therapeutic value of suggestion and of a judicious use of hypnotism has placed in the hands of the social worker a powerful agency for combating the will-weakening effects of narcotic drugs and alcoholic beverages. They are also proving of the greatest service in distressing cases of mental and moral disease where defects of education or of environment have led to immorality and crime.

President Eliot's denunciations of even a moderate use of alcoholic stimulants, on the basis of the results of psychological investigation, are well worth quoting and

should prove a stimulus to the cause of temperance. "It is well known," says Doctor Eliot "that alcohol, even if moderately used, does not quicken the action of the mind or enable one to support mental labor. We have had a great deal of German investigation and some American investigation in psychological laboratories in that direction, and the results are perfectly plain, and they are all one. The effect of alcohol on the time reaction of the human being has been studied carefully, tested in hundreds of thousands of cases, and there is no question about the ill effects of alcohol even in very moderate doses on the time reaction. That means that alcohol in moderate doses diminishes the efficiency of the workingman in most instances and makes him incapable of doing his best in the work of the day. So I say that even the moderate use of alcohol is objectionable."

Promise of valuable results in the detection of wrong-doing and crime are found in what is called Crime "the association reaction method." It is based on the theory that disquieting thoughts and ideas will reveal themselves through variations in the individual's reaction time as he responds to carefully selected stimuli. The usual method of applying the tests is through a carefully selected list of words, among which are scattered the words naturally associated with the wrong-doing. As each word is pronounced by the investigator, the subject is expected to utter promptly the first word of which he happens to think. A very noticeable hesitation is found to accompany the pronouncing of associates to the catch words, even though they be thoroughly scattered among the other indifferent words. In the case of a thief who had cleverly and as he thought successfully concealed his tracks, an associate for the word "thief" was not uttered by him until at the expiration of 4.6 second, although for words indifferent to him his average reply came in 1.6 seconds. Parents as well as criminologists

may find it well worth while to follow the developments of this particular phase of psychology, for the practical assistance it may afford in the detection of secret derelictions from a normal life.

That psychology may prove of great service even to the business man, is becoming evident by the study beginning to be devoted to such subjects as successful advertising. F. W. Foote is at present Business engaged in a series of experiments, at Harvard, to test the truth or fallacy of the presumption that people should at a glance be able to tell whether they are really securing the exact thing they think they are purchasing or what is only an imperfect duplicate of it. When a new product or a change in form or method of marketing an old one proves successful, the market is at once flooded with imitations. And if it should prove true, as suspected, that most purchasers do not readily detect the imitation, even when evidences of it lie upon the surface, it may become necessary to pass far more rigid laws for the protection of an easily fooled public.

Of course, the greatest service psychology can render should be to the educator, although Münsterberg and others have warned us that it cannot aid in determining the purpose or ends of education. That it can throw light upon the methods to be adopted for attaining these ends has been amply demonstrated. Probably nowhere is this more evident than in the wisdom we have gained in the treatment of the so-called abnormal and subnormal children. That many of these children, when carefully planned tests are applied to them, reveal the fact that they are not up to the standard because of easily remedied physical defects or because of unwholesome environments or wrong outlets for their natural activities merely emphasizes the need for placing education upon a more scientific basis. "The teacher," says Münsterberg, "must know what he is to teach, and must know how to teach it, and that involves his understanding the

child and all the factors which come in question when the child is dealt with."

That the parent and all others who are impressed with the supreme importance of the formative years of life should also have a good general idea of what the educator knows more specifically, is becoming more and more imperative. It then appears that psychology, probably in a far less theoretical form than in the past, shall yet prove a most valuable ally in providing for the well-being of the race. It also seems evident that it shall eventually be decidedly helpful to all who in any way desire to influence their fellows whether in the way of education, social uplift, disseminating justice, literary or æsthetic development, or the more commonplace but fundamental business world.

MEETING AT CORNELL.—For the purpose of emphasizing and adapting experimental psychology to the needs of the schools, the Educational Department of Cornell University held a meeting, last April, with representatives from the various colleges and normal schools of the State of New York.

The discussion centered about the place, extent, and form of the use of experimental work in courses in educational psychology. As a result of the discussion, the chief purposes for which experimental work might be introduced and the methods of determining what experiments should be selected in connection with the work were outlined.

If such meetings should become general and would consider practical, every day solutions for the practical, every day problems arising in the school-room, it would prove extremely helpful to many a teacher. As matters now stand teachers entirely too often study psychology in a scientific way and then go into the school-room and solve their problems in a very empirical fashion.

PART V

CHAPTER VII

SOCIAL PROBLEMS

A TINGE of pessimism has come into our national life as a result of the statement and reiteration of such ideas as: "In the domain of business success at any price is coming to be the motto"; "That which is not strictly prohibited by statute is permissible"; "Colossal fortunes are a menace to democratic institutions and threaten to overshadow democratic ideals"; "In no other civilized country is law-breaking regarded with so little concern—If the offender be wealthy or influential acquittal or light punishment is practically certain—If he be poor and without influence, conviction is the usual result—Impartial and adequate justice is seldom administered"; "Money is being made the chief qualification for high social standing; gold is valued above brains; ill-gotten wealth above nobility of character. Marriage is laughed at, its sacred vows are made to be broken, and the divorce evil threatens the home."

Tinge of
Pessimism

Were these statements as true as they are broad and sweeping, our democracy would indeed be a failure; the social groups and the social activities only a menace; and our efforts at education without any foundation on which to build. That there is far more truth in them than there should be serves as a rallying cry for every effort for social regeneration.

While wealth is not an undesirable thing, an inordinate desire for it or an unrestrained pursuit of it is most harmful. Few things more rapidly or more completely undermine the foundations of society than thought and action that are controlled by ideas of gain rather

than by ideals of right. Few things foster this desire for gain like an undue exaltation of riches. One of the most hopeful signs of the times is the seeming acknowledgment of the obligations of wealth which continues to lead the rich to give towards the help of their fellow-men. Another hopeful sign is the public condemnation of immoral methods of gain and the rallying support and praise that are coming to the help of the energetic, the able, and the fearless regardless of their wealth.

There has been during the past year serious friction between labor and capital—between the employers and the employed. But on the whole, there has been a most promising increase in the efforts for comfort and content, that have been honestly made by employers of labor, and a growing sense of mutual sympathy and consideration between the man who earns and the man who employs.

Although there is much poverty, distress, and dissatisfaction for which vice and imprudence and idleness are responsible, society has not yet done all that it should to remedy preventable disease, to safeguard the rights of the public, and to increase the satisfactions and benefits of education.

The past year has indicated possibilities along these lines that should stir the warm heart blood and stimulate the hope of all friends of the human race—the further protection of children from work that is dwarfing and morally unwholesome; the removal of objectionable and dangerous conditions of labor; the guarding of the public health, the public comfort, the public sense of beauty, the public justice and the public morals; a regeneration and intensifying of the life of the home; the spread of civic righteousness and international peace; a conservation of resources and powers that will continue and, if possible, magnify their blessings to our children; and, above all, a general widening and general applying of the benefits of education so that child-life, knowledge,

and training may all have their free course and be glorified—all of these things surely afford society both ample and uplifting fields of work.

Child Labor

Senator A. J. Beveridge, in a recent address on the subject of Child Labor, said: "There is at a low estimate half a million children under fourteen at work in cotton mills, glass factories, sweat-shops, mines, and like industries. Those whom such toil does not kill are being ruined for citizenship."

There is no question that it is a moral, as well as an industrial and political menace, to permit young people to face the dangers and stress of industrial life before they are properly trained and matured. An incomplete education often presages a complete failure in life. "If," as Senator Beveridge says, "everybody, including the most earnest advocate of State rights, could agree on a national quarantine law to keep out the yellow fever, which does not kill twenty people in twenty years, how much more should we agree on a national child-labor law to stop the practice that actually kills thousands of children and irreclaimably ruins tens of thousands every year."

That his statements of facts are not overdrawn is evident from reports from cotton factories in the South, as well as from investigations in many other parts of the country, which reveal shameful evasions of the laws. The Child-Labor Committee has recently, through its experts, been conducting an investigation which reveals conditions that they pronounce deplorable, in several of the oldest States of the Union. Many photographs were obtained, as direct evidence of these facts, from berry fields and in canneries. Pictures were obtained of establishments in which children were worked nine hours a day and, in extreme cases, from "sunup to sundown."

Report of
Child-Labor
Committee

It is also alleged that, to evade the law, hundreds of children of compulsory school age go into adjoining States while the schools are in session, to work in berry fields. The work tempts the avarice of parents because the earnings of a family sometimes net from \$6 to \$12 daily. It is also charged that children under fourteen years of age were found working in canneries and about dangerous machinery, the major portion of which was unguarded.

In contrast to this, several regulations concerning the employment of young people went into effect in the State of New York on October first. The new law prohibits the employment of boys under 21, after 10 P.M. or before 5 A.M., as telegraph messengers in cities of the first and second class. Another provision prohibits the employment of children after 7 P.M. in mercantile establishments of all cities, except New York, Buffalo and Rochester, in which for several years the closing hour has already been seven o'clock.

The new State of Oklahoma is generally conceded to have the best child-labor laws of any of the States. They were compiled from the best portions of the laws of New York, Massachusetts, Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Nebraska. With the exception of a few Southern States, most of the States now have laws compelling school attendance up to the age of fourteen; Montana forbids the regular employment of children before they are sixteen.

BIOLOGICAL TEST.—Dr. Thomas Morgan Rotch, of Harvard, has been conducting a broad range of studies in the use of the Röntgen rays. According to Rosa Pendleton Chiles, who has an article in the August issue of *The Forum*, none of his investigations promise to

be quite so interesting, or so helpful, as the ones which have led him to make a plea for the use of the X-rays in determining the fitness of children to assume the physical strain attending upon work in factories. His plea is based upon the idea that

Röntgen
Rays and
Child-Labor

this fitness can be determined only anatomically, and not alone by the mere factor of age. The age factor has sadly often "resulted in the ruin of health, mind or prospects, sometimes in the ruin of all; therefore it has become necessary to find a better and less varying rule to follow."

Dr. Rotch would use a combination of chronologic, physiologic, and anatomic conditions as a determining basis; but he claims that the chronologic or age-rule or law as to when a child may enter a factory is unreliable, that the physiologic stand-point may be correct, but that when it is it corresponds with the anatomic. Hence, his test would ultimately be an anatomic one because of its reliability.

This test would consist in having the child place one of its hands for a second under the Röntgen rays for the purpose of making a picture of it. This picture would reveal the anatomic condition of the epiphyses, or small bony nuclei that form in the cartilaginous material which, in the child, joins together the larger bones preparatory to the cartilage changing to bone.

Upon these epiphyses depends the future development of the child and, when these bony nuclei are impaired, the result affects the entire future life. When the child's bony development is not normal, neither is his strength nor general condition normal. Hence, the over-grown in height or in weight are peculiarly liable to being taxed beyond what their anatomic development would warrant. The greed of parents often leads them to falsify in such cases, relying upon the size of the child to make good their claims. Then, too, some States allow children to enter factories when they are entirely too young—a mistake which could be given greater public emphasis through the revelations of the X-rays.

Although Dr. Rotch has not fully developed his system, his investigations furnish food for reflection. For example, as he suggests, why would not the anatomic

test be an entirely reliable one for the selection of the subnormal child in our schools, as well as a test of its stage of development? That it would indicate the presence of diseased or abnormal conditions that interfere with proper physical development, seems certain. And that it might render valuable assistance in some of the problems of physical training, seems equally clear.

It should be noted that both extensive and careful work with the Röntgen System has been going on in the Naval Academy at Annapolis for more than a year for the purpose of determining the relation between the anatomic condition of the students and their scholarship.

NATIONAL CHILD-LABOR COMMITTEE.—The National Child-Labor Committee has put into the mouths of the children of America a set of resolutions which should stir to determined action all true friends of the helpless and hapless boys and girls who, through the greed of parents and employers, are compelled to work in mines and factories and workshops:

“Whereas, We, children of America, are declared to have been born free and equal, and

“Whereas, We yet are in bondage in this land of the free; are forced to toil the long day or the long night, with no control over the conditions of labor, as to health or safety, hours or wages, and with no right to the rewards of our service, therefore be it

Resolved: I—That childhood is endowed with certain inherent and inalienable rights, among which are freedom from toil for daily bread; the right to play and to dream; the right to the normal sleep of the night season; the right to an education that we may have equality of opportunity for developing all that there is in us of mind and heart.

Resolved, II—That we declare ourselves to be helpless and dependent; that we are and of right ought to be dependent, and that we hereby present the appeal of our

Children's
Declaration
of Inde-
pendence

helplessness that we may be protected in the enjoyment of the rights of childhood.

“Resolved, III—That we demand the restoration of our rights by the abolition of child labor in America.”

Public Health

ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE.—John D. Rockefeller celebrated the opening of the new hospital which is attached to the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, by an additional gift of \$3,820,000. The new building of the hospital, which is as perfect as modern architecture and modern science can make it, cost \$1,620,000. The Institute now has an endowment of \$6,420,000. Through this liberal provision, it will now be able to extend its investigations for the alleviation of human suffering and the prevention of human disease, into all fields of medical research.

Although the hospital will accommodate only about seventy patients, they will be selected according to the disease or diseases under investigation. The patients will receive the best treatment known and will be most carefully watched in every respect, in the hope that valuable information may thereby be secured for other conservators of the public health.

Dr. Jacques Loeb, of Chicago, during the year 1910, was called to the head of the new Department of Experimental Biology in the Institute. It was he who did so much to make clear the presence and effects of the toxin of fatigue, which now figures so largely in the arguments of physicians and sociologists for shorter hours of labor, especially for women.

Toxin of
Fatigue

The generous bounty of Mr. Rockefeller represents but one of the many efforts of the year to promote the public health. No class of servants of the public deserve more credit for their zeal in seeking and spreading intelligence along specific lines than do the medical men

of all civilized countries. Through patient research, by exchange of opinion through convention and press, and in a loyal adherence to duty regardless of their own feelings and comfort, and often at the cost of their own lives, these men are keeping their profession at the very forefront of progress.

CARE OF THE BABY.—One of the marked developments of the year has been the increased attention paid to babies, with a view of arresting the great mortality among them, especially in our large cities during the hot days of summer. When it is remembered that large cities like New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia have many thousands of babies whose mothers because of hunger, weakness, long hours of employment, or other distressing circumstances, are unable to nurse them properly, or to supply them with reliably pure and nutritious milk, the importance of this one phase of the work—the supplying of good and sanitary milk—can be appreciated. Investigation has shown that, of the 123,433 babies born in New York during the year 1909, one-eighth died before reaching the age of twelve months. Heat, ignorance, poverty, impure and adulterated food all contribute to this annual harvest of death.

Through wise and insistent work upon the part of the health department, nobly assisted by the efforts of social and charitable organizations, a creditable change in these conditions is being wrought. Pure milk is furnished from stations where physicians attend at stated periods for the consultation and instruction of mothers. Infants are weighed and carefully examined, with a view of remedying disease and the effects of malnutrition or improper care. In addition, a campaign of education has been carried on from convenient meeting places for mothers.

In Philadelphia and several other cities, instruction to mothers and the girl care-takers of the home, who often have more to do with the infant brother or sister

than the mother herself, was given during the summer months in various school-houses located in the more congested quarters. Physicians have generously given assistance in these efforts by lectures and private advice. The good work of removing children, as rapidly as possible, from asylums for waifs and orphans to approved homes, has also been continued throughout the year.

Instruction
of Mothers

NEURASTHENIA.—Father Vaughan, of London, in an address at the Eucharistic (Catholic) Congress at Montreal, had this to say about the intensity of modern life: "We are living in a day of headlines, snapshots, taxicabs and music halls; in a day when the scramble for the prizes of life has become a mad passion. It is a day of fever, fret and fume, when competition for earthen toys is so keen and the margin of profit in commerce has become so fine that the one cry beating through the air is 'hurry up.' No one seems to have time for pause, till worn out in pursuit of gewgaws and vanities, the clock is stopped and all action, mental and physical, must be prescribed as prohibitive for an eighth part of a year."

Neurasthenia is one of the physical ailments to which teachers are peculiarly liable. One of the latest theories attributes it to overworking certain areas of the brain until, through irritation, apprehension, or some other cause, an imperative idea arises and dominates the patient. As the other brain areas may be perfectly normal a change of occupation that employs other brain activities usually proves effective. The treatment that is based on this theory is now usually known as the Occupation and Exercise Cure. The change of interest gives the exhausted nerve centers rest; the new occupation takes the mind of the patient away from the dominating idea. Manual occupations usually prove helpful to brain workers; and gardening and work in the open have worked some remarkable cures.

"Occupation
and
Exercise
Cure"

This Occupation and Exercise Cure has been found very helpful in the case of epileptics. The State of New

Epileptics York does not admit these to the public schools; but, through the interest and charity of the late Oscar Craig of Rochester, the Craig Colony for Epileptics has been established at the old Shaker Colony at Sonyea, Westchester Co. Craig Colony is modelled after the one at Beilefeld, Germany. While the percentage of entire cures is small, these distressing cases are removed from the home, where they are a burden, and from the school and the street, where they are liable to serious injury and where the effects of their paroxysms and peculiarities are dangerous, through the influence of imitation, to their younger companions.

GENERAL.—Altogether there has been a remarkable growth during the last few years in the feeling of the value of human life. While in earlier days, only the privileged few could command the best known cure during illness or an abnormal physical condition, now even the foundling and the poor defective receive careful consideration and help. This has come about through various social developments that are rapidly going on backed, as they have been in problems of health, by the spirit of helpfulness that has developed among medical men themselves. There is now scarcely a place in the country where Boards of Health are not in charge of all questions pertaining to the health of the community. These boards are usually under the general supervision of the State Boards of Health. And now the formation of a National Department of Health is being strongly urged upon Congress.

Housing Problems and the City Beautiful

Arthur E. Buccholz, of Philadelphia, the United States delegate to the Ninth International Congress on Dwellings, which was held at Vienna last June, has ren-

dered a report to Secretary Knox. In this report, he clearly indicates that Europe is ahead of the United States in planning for the safety, the health, and the comfort of its city business houses and its city dwellings. And especially is it ahead of us in the harmony and general artistic effects of its architecture.

Mr. Bucholz suggests that at the exposition contemplated to be held in Boston in 1915, there be a "City Planning Department" that shall give the fullest possible exploitation to the subject of the safe, sanitary, and artistic housing of families and business firms.

It is well to remember that city improvements are usually so costly and permanent in their character that further improvements, after they have once been made, present extremely great difficulties. As Frederick L. Olmstead stated at the Second National Conference on City Planning: "Regard for beauty must neither follow after regard for practical ends to be obtained, nor precede it, but must inseparably accompany it."

Most of our cities now have some form of organization that gives special attention to architectural and artistic effects, at least for the city parks, the public buildings, and the beautifying of the city streets.

Under the influence of these movements, there is a constant improvement in the public taste. It is interesting to note that "the practical, hustling, utilitarian" City of Chicago has, under the influence of the noted architect Daniel H. Burnham, had its dreams of a "City Beautiful."

The proposition is to open up great wide boulevards which shall stretch diagonally across the city and furnish opportunities for artistic effects, as well as convenience of access. Freight stations and railroad yards are to be removed from the centre of the city, or, if for convenience passenger stations shall be retained, an effort to make them objects of beauty, with depressed tracks and complete riddance of the unhealthy, unsightly smoke nui-

sance from locomotives, shall be made. Plazas, statues, and covered ways are planned to break up the monotony of rectangular streets.

The banks of the lake front and of the rivers of the city are to have wide boulevards, and an effort is to be made to secure a more uniform sky-line in the buildings along these public ways. The entire lake front is to be turned into a park, having lagoons and artificial islands. Finally, around the city is to stretch a hundred mile crescent of artificial forest, with its tips resting on the shores of the lake. And the surprising thing about the whole matter is, that these plans are largely the result of the suggestions and interest of hard-headed business men, who have been thinking more of the practical than of the æsthetic value of such a consummation for this great metropolis of the Middle West.

BILL POSTERS.—The crusade against unsightly advertisements and immoral posters continues. The former are an offense to the public taste and the latter a menace to public purity.

The Montclair, N. J. women have introduced the idea of refraining from purchasing goods advertised on bill-boards. An organization of women in Cambridge, Mass., have taken a similar stand. Many merchants everywhere are agreeing to do no more such advertising. The San Francisco Real Estate Board is conducting a determined crusade against the unsightly bill-board, and the Washington, D. C., Commissioners have agreed to issue no more permits for their erection. The Corporation Counsel of Seattle has recommended to the State Legislature a law giving municipalities the control of the use of private property where there might be danger of their erection.

Worcester, Mass., under the leadership of its Mayor is exercising a most rigid oversight of all posters. The Federation of Catholic Women in Cincinnati have been particularly active in the suppression of degrading post-

ers. The Supreme Court of Illinois has affirmed the right of police to exercise a censorship which will exclude immoral posters. Chicago has been during the past year active in the campaign for their suppression.

If to the suppression of these undesirable things could now be added the removal of the unsightly telegraph and telephone poles, that so disfigure our streets and so mar the beauty of many a landscape, the fountain of beauty from which our young people drink would be still less contaminated.

The Laws and Their Enforcement

There is a growing demand for a simplification of our laws and, especially, for their more prompt enforcement. The swiftness and certainty of punishment have more to do with its restraining power than does its severity. The delay in American justice has become proverbial. It is not an unusual thing for cases to come up for their final trial many months after justice can be of effective service. The criminally inclined rely upon the law's delays for the dying out of resentment, for the disappearance or mollifying of testimony, and for the leniency, postponement, and even entire disappearance of judgment.

Delays of
Justice

Probably, as an editorial in the *Outlook* for April 9, 1910, points out, all human rights may be reduced to the four that are recognized in the Ten Commandments—Thou shalt not kill; thou shalt not commit adultery; thou shalt not steal; thou shalt not bear false witness. The principles of law are remarkably simple; it is the applications that are endless and complicated. The application of common-sense principles to a determination of the material rights and duties of men in the varied relationships of modern life would often quickly resolve questions of justice and ensure its enforcement more effectively than any possible statute. It is because of

the multiplicity of laws, often conflicting or at least obscure, that justice fails to hit the mark.

Legal practice has also come to the point of being *governed* by legal decisions instead of being *guided* by them. If laws were few, clearly stated, brief and yet broadly comprehensive, their interpretation would lose much of its difficulty and the necessity of their enforcement make a stronger appeal to the public mind and conscience. In at least a half dozen of the States, Commissions for the simplifying of the laws are either at work or are under advisement.

PRISON REFORM.—The Eighth International Prison Congress was held in Washington October 2–8 inclusive.

Prison Congress This Congress advocated longer prison terms for old offenders and shorter terms and greater opportunities for reformation for the person new to crime. The thought of the advocates of these changes is, that first offenders are often the victims of chance temptation and that as soon as they commit crime they realize its enormity.

The law should recognize these facts and be far more considerate of them, than of those whose conscience has become hardened and their feelings callous to public opinion. Many judges have already gauged their sentences, in so far as the law permitted, to suit the new offender; even, in some instances, passing sentence as a warning and then suspending it in the hope of future good behavior.

Over fifty different nations sent delegates to the Congress; for all countries suffer from the effects of crime.

Cost of Crime It has been established that the effects of crime cost the United States not less than a billion dollars a year. This is an inconceivable sum and yet it takes no account of the suffering, the unhappiness, and the degradation caused by the evil propensities of men and women and, sad to say, of boys and girls as well. There are constantly about one hundred

thousand prisoners in our various penal institutions. About thirty-three thousand leave them each year, but, unfortunately, they are constantly being replaced by as many more.

Some of the questions considered at the Congress of these delegates are of special interest to educators. They are such as:

What can be done about idle and vagrant children in large cities?

Should children be treated as criminals?

How can we best deal with inebriety?

What can be done to assist prisoners' families?

Is a crime more serious when a group commits it than when a single person commits it?

Professor Adolph Prins of Belgium, one of the distinguished delegates to the above Congress and who is a man of wide experience and knowledge of criminology, after a careful inspection of the jails and reformatories of New York, has made public his impressions of American justice. He speaks of us as the most generous people in the world and says: "Your rich are very rich, but they are more and more realizing that their wealth is only a stewardship. The State seems to do little for the poor; but the owners of individual fortunes plan out great benevolences that are national in their scope, and their results are astounding. Besides, you have a wonderful way of helping the poor to help themselves—you teach them how to prosper by their own efforts. You are afraid, however, to hurt your criminals. You would rather coddle them. Your laws are to blame. You are too prone to arrest people and then too prone to let them go."

Morals and Religion

Because of their importance these subjects are treated in a separate chapter.

The Home

Nothing is quite so important to human welfare as the family, the fundamental social group; and yet, strange to say, no vital interest attracts less public attention and, in the past, has received less public consideration. However, economic and social changes that seriously threaten the influence of the home, have been increasing to such an extent that the more thoughtful are becoming alarmed and are now making organized and systematic efforts to stem the current of evil tendencies, and to replace the things that seem unavoidably removed, by economic conditions, from so many homes.

DIVORCE.—Nothing has caused more alarm than the frequency of divorce, which has increased to such an alarming extent in the United States that almost ten per cent. of the marriages are resulting in separations. In this respect we now outrank any other country excepting Japan, where the conditions are, to say the least, decidedly unmoral. Governmental statistics show that, for the year 1906, there were 72,062 divorces granted in the United States and that during the same period there were 852,290 marriages. And, since then, there has unquestionably been a decided increase both in the number of divorces and in the publicity given to them; many of them being of a nature that has enticed the columns of sensational journalism and fostered a desire for salacious reading.

About half of the divorces are granted on the ground of desertion; for much of which lack of ability or of inclination of the wife for home keeping is deemed responsible. President Faunce of Brown University attributes many marital troubles to the increasing economic independence of women. In a recent address, he said: "It used to be that one person supported the entire family and the members of the home busied themselves with minor domestic duties. The

Pres.
Faunce's
Statement

dominating spirit of the home was sympathy and helpfulness. But (now) woman to a large degree has become independent, and her increased independence has resulted in haughtiness in place of the old spirit of sympathy."

Social workers are turning to the school for the vital instruction which girls so rarely now get in the home. Many feel that the weakest point in our educational system is the home, and that the time has come when very direct and practical efforts must be made both by the school and the church to remedy its defects. Whether this shall be done by taking over the work that naturally should be done in the home or by putting this work back into the home is no longer the question. The best solution lies, no doubt, in our meeting conditions as we find them and in endeavoring to secure hearty coöperation of all the educational forces in all the work of education.

Venereal disease and adultery have also been fruitful sources of divorce. In remedying these, legislators and departments of health can render material assistance. A recent State law in Washington strikes at the baleful effects of marriages where venereal disease would be present. A recent supreme court decision in New York State illegalizes marriage with the co-respondent in divorce proceedings. In many of the States it is no longer easy to secure absolute divorce excepting for bona fide criminal causes.

NATIONAL LEAGUE FOR THE PROTECTION OF THE FAMILY.—The National League for the Protection of the Family (Rev. Samuel W. Dike, Auburndale, Mass., Secretary) is rendering excellent service in spreading knowledge and in securing legislation concerning these important questions which affect the family life of our nation. In the annual report of the League for 1909 will be found some very forcible statements concerning the importance of the Family and the need of dealing wisely and energetically with the dangers which threaten the

family life. It refers to such facts as: that the divorce question is coming to be an inseparable part of the problem of the Family, the elementary human association, in which, according to the latest ideas of social science, so many of the thoughts, feelings, and actions of life may have their inception and inspiration; that not only uniform divorce-laws but uniform marriage-laws need to be secured; that "the world is evidently moving, though slowly, towards a more scientific and uniform system of family law;" that licentiousness is probably the most potent factor in the whole list of the causes of crime; and that the results of the 75,000 divorces, secured each year in the United States, must be a serious pecuniary burden on society either through their direct or their indirect effects; that the home is responsible for much of the trouble and inefficiency of the child in the school, in the church, and in society in general; and that hardly anywhere else in the world does the Family need more special attention than here in these United States.

This is because "the home is fast becoming unconscious of the fact that it has any special duties in the work of education and religion. It is permitting church and school to take over most of its educational and religious functions. Religious atrophy or feeble development of the home has been the inevitable consequence. Having a weakened vitality, the family has become an easy prey of desertion and the divorce court."

And our divorce courts differ radically from many of the European courts in that the Judges in our courts are under no legal obligation to endeavor to effect a reconciliation, while in at least fourteen European courts the Judges are under such obligation. In Italy during the last twenty years, these efforts have led to a reconciliation or an abandonment of the suit for divorce in at least 50 per cent. of the cases.

Foreign
Judges and
Divorce

The Home and the School

The Home is not only becoming more appreciative of the School but it is also growing into a more intelligent and helpful interest in the work of the School. While there is an ever-increasing value being attached to an education, the Home is beginning to realize that the mere sending of the child to school does not guarantee its securing an education. There is a twofold reason for this. In the first place, the School has not always been prepared to arouse in the child a vital interest in its work. In the second place, an education cannot be imparted, it must be acquired. The school building, the teacher, the text-books, the daily program, the school associations are merely so many opportunities for the child to educate itself. He may get much or little; all depends upon his attitude towards his work and his industry in it.

That the School may be all that it should be to the child the parent has a twofold duty. He must see that the school is as thoroughly equipped for its work as it may be; and he must also in the Home and in all of the social and political relations of the Home, see that the School receives appreciation and has full moral support at its command. To this the School must reciprocate by appreciating the desires and highest interests of the Home and by a willingness to make quite clear to the Home the work and aims of the School. There must be the sympathetic coöperation of these two agencies that lie so close to the life of the child, if he is vitally to respond to the touch of each. And this truth applies whether the Home be rich or poor and whether the School be large or small, in the city or in the country.

Mrs. Mary Van Meter Grice, who has had some fifteen years of valuable experience in bringing the Home and the School nearer to each other, has recently written a very helpful little book on the subject. ("Home and

School"—Grice; Christopher Sower Co., Philadelphia.) In the introduction, which was written by Dr. Martin G.

Dr. Brumbaugh's Statement Brumbaugh, Superintendent of the Philadelphia Schools, is found a statement which should especially appeal to those familiar with the work of the rural and semi-rural school: "The underlying principle, the consciously bringing together into closer, more intelligent relationship the home and the school, is of as potent force in private as in the public school. This force is felt in the schools of country places as well as in those of cities. Indeed, in no place is the beneficial effect of this coöperation felt more vividly than in country districts."

For probably the most discouraging thing connected with the whole rural-school problem is the indifference of the home. The new interest in agriculture is helping, in a way that is worth while, where the work reaches down into the elementary school. But it is quite clear that no teacher or teachers can alone make a good school. The interests of the child demand the interest of the Home. For, after all, the child finds its most impelling forces in the place and in the persons where its earliest instincts are most firmly imbedded. And father or mother's word, or evidence of their approval or disapproval, can make or mar much that is done in the School.

Parents should place an ever-increasing trust in the School, because of the many evidences of its desire to supply the vital things which under modern conditions are so rapidly disappearing from the Home. That these efforts originate with the School shows that it is projecting itself more and more into the home of the child. That it may be well with the child the Home must now project itself more and more into the life of the School.

Mother's Day

If the Family, the School, and the Church would all unite in an intelligent effort to prepare our boys and girls for the duties, the responsibilities, and the privileges of home life, the number of divorces would be greatly lessened and the percentage of family happiness and family efficiency greatly increased.

Especially is a happy and efficient home-life dependent upon the mother. And no position in life is more worthy of honor than that of the mother in the Home. For the purpose of giving public recognition to that fact, the second Sunday of May, for several years past, has been set aside as Mother's Day. On this day, everyone is asked to wear a white carnation as a symbol of the purity of the mother love. And the Church, the Sabbath-school, and the Home are all asked to give especial thought to the value of the Home as a nursery of all of the noble qualities and characteristics that may be made to bloom so beautifully and so helpfully into character and worthy action.

There was a marked increase in the number of places in which Mother's Day was observed last year. Many educators and social workers agree that it must be through a complete restoration of the mother interest in the home that the loss and menace of club-life, of ultra-fashionable society, and of all other pastimes, amusements and ambitions that break in on the unity of the home-life and crowd out its privileges can effectively be removed. And the true mother in the home deserves the tribute of being honored on a day set apart for honoring religion. For "mother-love is more than a sentiment, it is a religion—and the last religion in which a man or woman loses faith."

Civil and Political Problems (see Chapter IX)

Peace

President Taft, in his Thanksgiving Proclamation for 1910, gave as one of the great reasons why the people of the United States should be thankful, "We continue to be at peace with the rest of the world. In all essential matters our relations with other peoples are harmonious, with an ever-growing reality of friendliness and depth of recognition of mutual dependence. It is especially to be noted that during the past year great progress has been achieved in the cause of arbitration and the peaceful settlement of international disputes."

The efforts for universal peace in which the United States has always taken a leading part, were particularly fruitful during the past year. Early in June, a resolution was reported by the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, with the hearty approval of the President, to appoint a Commission whose object and efforts shall be to promote international peace. The resolution follows:

"Resolved, By the House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, that a commission of five members be appointed by the President to consider the expediency of utilizing existing international agencies for the purpose of limiting armaments by international agreement, and for the purpose of using the combined navies of the world for the purpose of maintaining international peace."

Resolution
in Congress

THE LAKE MOHONK CONFERENCE.—The sixteenth annual gathering of the Lake Mohonk Conference on National Arbitration was an exceptionally inspiring meeting. It began on May 18, and there were present an unusual number of diplomats, jurists, leading clergymen from at home and abroad, as well as prominent educators. There were a number of earnest and thoughtful addresses that dealt with the problems of peace and arbitration.

Doctor Nicholas Murray Butler spoke of the establishment of the International Arbitration Court at The Hague as the greatest step yet taken towards securing world-wide peace. The year's work was reviewed by Dr. Benjamin F. Trueblood of Boston.

Prof. John B. Clark of Columbia University, in his address, "An Economic View on War and Arbitration," referred to the lives already sacrificed in war during historic times. He places the number at fifteen billions and said that, in addition, these wars had involved a direct expenditure of forty billions and an indirect loss fully as great. He expressed the opinion that the evil of class antagonism, the menace of socialism, the strife between labor and capital—all could be removed if the amount now spent in maintaining armies and navies would be spent on the improvement of national resources, the improving of education and opportunities for securing it, the caring for the aged and sick, the fighting of disease, and the doing of many other things for the general benefit of the race. Peace would in this way furnish a solution for most of our economic ills.

Shortly after the Mohonk Conference, the British Peace Society held its annual meeting in London. Mr. Carnegie was among the speakers, and strongly urged a world-wide peace. There were many expressions at this meeting of the hope that the new British Monarch and the German Emperor might join hands as the "Peace Lords" of Europe. The announcement was made at this meeting that, since the first Hague conference met, no less than a hundred treaties of arbitration have been ratified between different countries.

British
Peace
Society

ARBITRATION.—It was fitting that the new home of the International Bureau of American Republics, the "Palace of Peace" in Washington, should have been dedicated during the season of singing birds and blooming flowers; for it speaks of a renewed hope of a harvest of peace. President Taft, at

"Palace of
Peace"

its dedication, expressed the hope that the time would soon come when "any nineteen of the American Republics can say to the other two 'You shall not fight.'"

Andrew Carnegie, who generously donated the funds for the erection of the beautiful building, spoke of the contrast in the result of a difference of opinion between friends and between enemies. The former ends in a peaceful settlement, either between themselves or through arbitrators; the latter ends in strife. And the crime of war is that it gives victory, not to the nation which is right, but to the one which is the stronger.

The building occupies an attractive site near the Washington Monument and overlooking the Potomac. The grounds contain five acres and, with their improvements, cost a quarter million dollars which was appropriated by the twenty-one American Republics. The dedication exercises were held April 26, 1910, in the presence of a large assembly of people. The President, Mr. Carnegie, Secretary Knox, Senator Root, and Señor de la Barra, the Mexican Ambassador, who represented the Latin-American Republics, all pledged themselves to strive to bring about and maintain peace not only in all America but between all nations.

These pledges were soon to bear fruit, for Peru and Ecuador, early in June, agreed to withdraw the troops which each nation was mobilizing on the frontier for the purpose of settling by war a long-standing dispute about boundaries. This more peaceable issue was brought about through the suggestion of Secretary Knox that they each submit to an offer for mediation sent by the United States, Brazil, and Argentina. Thus the ennobling sentiments expressed at the dedication of the International Bureau of American Republics bore early and gratifying fulfillment.

But a settlement of even greater significance occurred on September 7, 1910, when the International Court of Arbitration, after hearing arguments from the represent-

atives of the United States and of Great Britain, rendered its decision in the Newfoundland Fisheries Case. This settles a controversy of long standing and furnishes an impressive illustration of the value of the Court in settling disputes which, before the time of arbitration, might easily have led to serious friction between the two nations.

In this arbitration there were seven points at issue between the two countries. They involved such questions as: (1) the right of Great Britain and its British American possessions to pass reasonable regulations for the preservation of their fisheries; (2) the right of the inhabitants of the United States to take fish on the treaty coasts and while so doing to employ other than Americans on their crews; (3) the requirement of entry and the payment of duty by such vessels; (4) the placing of restrictions upon American vessels entering Canadian ports for shelter, repair, etc.; (5) the meaning of the word *bay* in the existing treaty; (6) whether the treaty permits the same privileges in Newfoundland as in Labrador; (7) are American fishing vessels while exercising their privileges to have the same rights as trading vessels?

While points 1 and 5 were decided in favor of the British interpretation, the United States was accorded a favorable verdict on the other five points. The decision was on the whole entirely acceptable to both countries.

ACADEMIC VIEWS.—May 5, 1910, Theodore Roosevelt delivered a short but pithy address before the Committee which had awarded him the Nobel Prize for his efforts, while President, in behalf of international peace.

Some of his most forcible statements follow: "In our complex industrial civilization of to-day the peace of righteousness and justice, the only kind of peace worth having, is at least as necessary in the industrial world as it is among nations. The cruel greed and violence, on the part of the world of labor, needs to be curbed just as

Newfound-
land Fisher-
ies Dispute

Roosevelt's
Statements

well as the cruel greed and arrogance on the part of the world of capital, and the cruel and unhealthy militarism which endangers international friendship."

Peace "becomes a very evil thing if it serves merely as a mask for cowardice and sloth, or as an instrument to further the ends of despotism or anarchy. No man is worthy being called a man who will not fight rather than submit to infamy, or see those that are dear to him suffer wrong. No nation deserves to exist if it permits itself to lose the stern and virile virtues." "In striving for lofty ideals, we must use practical methods. Sometimes we can advance only step by step and must be reasonably content because we are making some progress in the right direction."

Mr. Roosevelt then pointed out some ways, which he regarded as practical, for advancing the cause of international peace:—

1. There can be treaties of arbitration. These of course cannot at present be made with nations so backward in civilization that an international police force would be necessary to carry out the provisions of such treaties. But between civilized people, while as yet there is no adequate guarantee of the proper carrying out of such treaties, the public sentiment of the civilized world can be made an effective force towards their fulfillment.

2. Further development of the work and power of the Hague Tribunal. To this end the American Government has strongly advocated the completion of the permanent Court of Arbitral Justice which was constituted at the second Hague Conference. The methods of securing peace and good relations between the different States of the United States, as provided for in the Constitution and in the practice of our Supreme Court, would furnish a good working basis for such a court.

3. Something should be done as soon as possible to check the growth of armaments, especially naval armaments, by international agreement. All would have to

be sincere in this, however; so that a nation really believing in peace should not place itself at the mercy of an insincere rival.

4. It would be a master stroke if the great powers honestly bent on peace would form a League of Peace—this league not only to keep peace among themselves but to prevent its being broken by others. The supreme difficulty of the peace work of The Hague arises from the lack of executive power, of police power to enforce the decrees of the Court. Like individuals living in new and wild communities where there is violence, nations must keep prepared to defend themselves until there is a competent international power to protect them.

The late Doctor William James, of Harvard, presented, in the August issue of *McClure's Magazine*, a scholarly article on the Moral Equivalents of War. In this article, he gives us the psychologist's view of the effects of war upon the moral stamina of a people. While Doctor James proclaims himself in this article to be an apostle of peace, he at the same time gives us a view of the other side of the question, a view which ends with this statement, "taking human nature as a whole, wars are its best protection against its weaker and more cowardly self, and mankind cannot afford to adopt a peace-economy."

View of
Dr. James

However, whatever our view, we shall no doubt all agree with one of Dr. James' opening statements, which is to the effect that "wars now must never be waged solely for the sake of an ideal harvest. Only when forced upon one, only when an enemy's injustice leaves us no alternative, is a war now thought permissible."

Conservation and the Development of Natural Resources

The difference of opinion as to the best way to conserve the natural resources of the country was brought to a focus at the meeting of the National Conservation

Congress, held at St. Paul early in September. President Taft, as well as those who believe as he does in the matter, holds that conservation must proceed in a legal way; that it shall be carried on with due regard to the Constitution and the rights of the States; that there shall be no tying up of resources, but rather their control and development. Or to use President Taft's own words, "Real conservation involves wise, non-wasteful use in the present generation, with every possible means of preservation for succeeding generations—the problem is how to save and how to utilize; how to conserve and still develop; for no sane person can contend that it is for the common good that nature's blessings should be stored only for unborn generations."

Their opponents, having in mind the predatory activities of certain unscrupulous corporations and even more unscrupulous individuals, insist that, inasmuch as many of these corporations and individuals hold absolute political control in whole States and groups of States, Federal power is the only power that can control their unwarranted activities and their insatiable greed. In the words of Colonel Roosevelt, "It (the question) is simply this: Who can best regulate the special interests for the public good? Most of the predatory corporations are interstate or have interstate affiliations. Therefore, they are largely out of reach of effective State control, and fall of necessity within the Federal jurisdiction. The most effective weapon against these great corporations will be Federal laws and the Federal executive. That is why I so strongly oppose the demand to turn these matters over to the States."

While Roosevelt, Pinchot, and other earnest and effective advocates of conservation, agree with the sane words of President Taft in regard to conserving and still developing, they so greatly fear the power and greed that menace our remaining public resources, that they would withdraw them from development until their

control for the public good can be assured. The main issue at the Congress was over the question of whether the control of water-power sites should be by the State or by the Nation.

It may be interesting to know that the public domain has amounted in all to approximately 1,800,000,000 acres and that of this there now remains about 700,000,000 acres. Of this remainder, the forest reserves within the United States amount to 144,000,000 acres. The remainder of the public domain is largely mountain or arid land, with opportunities in some places for irrigation, or dry-farming, and with rich resources in metals, coal, and natural gas, phosphates, etc., in other places.

One of the most splendid results, so far at least as education is concerned, of a wise conservation of natural resources, is shown by the State of Minnesota in the way in which it has dealt with the public land granted to it under the provisions of the Morrill Act.

Under the provision of this Act, Minnesota, in common with a number of other States, received generous gifts of public land, the income of which was to be devoted to the establishment and maintenance of State schools of agriculture and of the mechanic arts. Instead of selling this land, as so many other States did at the price formerly prevailing for government land, \$1.25 per acre, Governor Ramsey, who was then in the executive chair, assisted by the State Legislature, placed a minimum price of \$5.00 per acre upon it. They sold the timber on all forest land to the highest bidder, and, instead of selling mineral-bearing lands, they agreed only to lease them at a minimum rate of twenty-five cents per ton for all minerals taken from them.

As an unexpected abundance of minerals has been found on these public lands, a continual source of income has been added to the great sums received from the other

The Public
Domain

School-fund
of Minn.

sources. As a result, Minnesota now has a school-fund amounting to over \$22,000,000 and has also one thousand forty-acre tracts from which minerals are, or may be, mined. At a royalty of twenty-five cents per ton, it is estimated that these tracts should yield the State at least \$250,000,000 before they are exhausted.

FOREST FIRES.—The Conservation Congress recently held at St. Paul urged the necessity for fire-regulations on private forest land and for more effective forest-forces for the public possessions. It is estimated that \$50,000,000 worth of timber is destroyed by fire each year.

A forest region 85 miles long and 30 miles wide, covering all of the territory in northern Minnesota between Red Lake and the Lake of the Woods, was burned over early in October. A half dozen small towns and a number of scattered dwellings were destroyed. The loss of property, including timber, is estimated at over three million dollars. Worst of all, however, was the loss of human life, it being estimated that at least 200 men, women and children were cut off and destroyed by the wind-driven flames. Thousands have been made both homeless and penniless by the fires. Stories are told of wild animals fleeing side by side with human beings, having lost both their fierceness and their fear in the great holocaust.

While no precautions or legislation can beat conscience and common sense into the brains of reckless campers, careless farmers and railroad corporations that are indifferent to anything not making for dividends, all need the influence of law and a judicious enforcement of precautions that can do much towards preventing a recurrence of these great and entirely unnecessary devastations. The railroads should be compelled by legislation to place smoke-consuming devices on all locomotives, and thus the constant danger from red hot cinders be removed. The construction of cleared paths, which serve as fire-breaks and the establishment of better com-

Fires in
Minn.

munication and a larger force on the forest-ranger service, would do much towards preventing serious fires and towards restricting them to a limited area, when they do occur.

The actual loss from one disastrous fire would more than offset any possible cost of such service for a number of years; the contingent damage, whose results will continue for many years, is in some cases beyond computation. The replacing of these forests is a matter of long years, even if it is ever entirely possible; the effect upon streams, which are the feeders of our great river systems, is not pleasant to contemplate. And in neither case is the inestimable value of human life taken into account.

EDUCATION AND CONSERVATION.—There are three lines of work that should be consistently pursued in the campaign of education for a better use of our natural resources:

1. To inculcate a good general knowledge of the tremendous natural resources of the country.
2. To train into the best methods of utilizing these.
3. To develop a conservation sense of using them as a source of *continued* rather than of *immediate* wealth.

There is no subject of general information or of specific knowledge on which more has been written than concerning our natural resources. This has been partly due to the interest of geographers and travellers, but more largely to the enterprise of private corporations, as well as to the energy of our Government through the Department of the Interior, which has general charge of the public domains. But, notwithstanding all of the available material for instruction and the tremendous outlook in the way of opportunity that our undeveloped resources afford, little has been done towards bringing our boys and girls, as well as the people at large, into a vital appreciation of these things.

The policy of the past has been partly responsible for this. So long as private enterprise was regarded as bet-

ter adapted to developing these resources, it was deemed advisable to offer every possible inducement to have it do so, and the public naturally took the minimum of interest in these resources. But since it is becoming evident that these resources, when given over to private enterprise, are not always being developed in the best interests of the whole people, to whom after all they belong, and since it is seen that from the very nature of these resources interests are usually involved which are larger than these private holdings or even of the State in which they are located, a larger control is earnestly advocated. And this larger control seems necessary if the greatest and best welfare of all is to be conserved.

Whether this control, in case of the public domain, shall be continued in the form of a lease with legal restrictions and a proper return to the public, or whether it shall take the form of governmental operation, as well as governmental ownership, is an entirely different question. That the general government shall have to retain and exercise some sort of control of certain resources seems inevitable, if they are to continue as a source of general welfare.

ARBOR DAY AND THE SCHOOLS.—For the purpose of arousing an interest in trees, Nebraska, the "Treeless State," in 1872 set apart a day in the spring for the planting of trees. With this beginning, not only has Nebraska changed its title to that of the "Tree Planting State" but a rapidly developing general interest in these useful servants of mankind has also spread over the entire country. Wanton destruction of forests and indifference to the diseases and insect enemies of trees no longer pass unnoticed. Trees, which have taken years to grow and which it would be both difficult and long to replace, are beginning to be regarded as an important part of our natural resources.

These facts together with lessons of beauty, lessons of health, and lessons of patriotism, are now being taught

to boys and girls through developing their respect and admiration for trees. The young person who plants and cares for a tree also plants and cares for moral qualities that tend to make him a better friend and a more useful citizen.

The Forest Service of the Department of Agriculture has issued a very interesting and profitable circular on Arbor Day. (See also "Arbor Day," a pamphlet prepared by Professor Wesley N. Clifford of the Southern High School, Philadelphia.) The effort now is to get the child interested both in the tree as a source of beauty and as a source of wealth and in the forest as a source of general welfare.

IRRIGATION.—The policy of rendering Federal assistance in the reclamation of arid lands continues. A bill for a thirty-million dollar bond issue, to continue the irrigation projects in the West, was introduced into Congress on June 16. In this way the Government brings many thousand acres of barren stretches into cultivation, and it has always received sufficient financial return to be able to take up new projects of irrigation. The person, young or old, who does not realize something of what irrigation has come to mean to the West, does not grasp the change that it is making in our National resources nor the wealth of opportunity that it is opening up for the engineer, the farmer, the fruit-grower, and the railroad man.

The School as a Community Center

A well-equipped modern school building represents a large expenditure of the public money. That it should not stand idle for so much of the time, when, outside of the day school hours, it might be used for the social as well as the educational uplift of the community, is an opinion that is rapidly bearing fruit all over the country. Not only are evening schools being held in the class-rooms

of these buildings and their assembly rooms serving as lecture centers for the adults of the community, but their rooms and appliances are being turned to use for the children who are unfortunate in their home conditions. Here, after school and in the evening, the children are gathered from the street to be educationally entertained or to be afforded opportunity and help in their study or further training.

Different cities are working along different lines in these uses of the school building and there is, as yet, no typical Social Center which will serve as a model for all. Possibly, eventually we shall work out a well organized use of the building in these respects that shall combine the educational and the social idea—the evening school and the social center.

However, the following indicates the uses and tendencies that have already developed along these lines:

Summary 1. For the after school and evening instruction of those who do not have desired and desirable opportunity for such instruction during the sessions of the day school.

2. To meet the needs of communities where the boys and girls would otherwise be under the evil influences of the streets in the evenings, efforts are made to attract them to these centers, where they are under the influences of helpful instructors and good literature.

3. They furnish places where the older people gather together for instruction and helpful social enjoyments.

4. In places, they are also being used for literary and debating societies, and as places where public questions receive consideration.

5. The school-yard and the school gymnasium are also extending their usefulness beyond the hours and days of the regular sessions.

It is quite evident that these uses of the school building are rapidly developing and that it is only a question of time when every prominent school-plant shall be as it

should be—a true center for community help and community uplift.

The last report of the system of evening lectures given in New York School buildings shows a remarkable growth. In this great "University for the People," able specialists speak not only on subjects of important social significance but also on literature, science, art, travel, history and biography. Dr. Henry M. Leipziger, who has charge of this work in New York, is energetic and enthusiastic, and has fully demonstrated his ability to plan courses of lectures that the people will attend and from which they derive both immediate knowledge and an incentive to renew the delights of learning.

Superintendent Maxwell has rendered a direct and far-reaching social service to the citizens of New York, in inducing the Board of Education of that great cosmopolitan city, to furnish the support for such lectures. He also deserves the appreciation of educators everywhere for pointing the way to this wider use of the modern school buildings, which represent such a large outlay of the public money.

Playgrounds

No movement of recent years has received more prompt and generous support from the public than has the establishment of proper places for the free expression of the play-activities of the boys and girls. The rapidity with which the interest in public playgrounds has spread indicates not only a general interest in the happiness of young people, but also a more specific appreciation of the possibilities of such grounds in the way of promoting health, civic betterment, and social progress.

When these playgrounds are placed, as they always should be, under the careful supervision of a person who is both competent and sympathetic on all questions of proper exercise and safety in play, they are a most effect-

ive means of promoting the physical welfare of young people. Children are also attracted away from dangerous and demoralizing places for play, by these more attractive playgrounds, and thus the question of policing the city and of placing all parts of it under the proper social influences is much simplified.

But these playgrounds must be in direct charge of some one who is both capable and sympathetic. The

Supervisor of Play-grounds supervisor of a playground must be one who both understands and loves the young people.

“One of the most important results of the study and thought that has been devoted to the recreation problem, is the general recognition that the play leader, rather than elaborate equipment, is the essential factor in the playground. Get the right man or woman to lead the boys and girls in their play. And all other things will follow.” (See *The American Educational Review* for Jan., 1910).

The Year Book of the Playground Association of America, for the year 1909, shows that out of 914 cities in the United States having a population of 5000 or over, 336 or over one-third are maintaining supervised playgrounds. Over half of the separate playgrounds already established are in the most densely populated centers of the North Atlantic States, where the need has made a strong and successful appeal to all who are interested in education and general social conditions.

It is interesting to note that the establishment and maintenance of these public playgrounds are no longer left to private philanthropy; for the cities themselves have awakened to their civic value and to their responsibilities to the children. In fifteen of the large cities, before the end of 1909, arrangements had been effected to control these playgrounds by commissions serving as a regular part of the city departments. In half of them the managing authority, either wholly or in part, is the city itself.

President Taft recently said, "I think every city is under the strongest obligation to its people to furnish to the children, from the time they begin to walk until they reach manhood, places within the city walls large enough and laid out in proper form for the playing of all sorts of games which are known to our boys and are liked by them."

That they are a very necessary help under modern city conditions in the development of an upright, wholesome citizenship, is recognized by all who appreciate modern municipal problems. As Ex-President Roosevelt has so tersely indicated, the great danger in an American city is neither in overwork nor in intensity of work but in the relaxations of the people. "Not until we care for the relaxation of the nation may we boast of a permanent and virile civilization."

In a recent address Jacob A. Riis of New York made a forcible plea for public playgrounds when he said: "Our social conscience is waking up. And we are coming to realize if we want strong men and strong women as members of our social system we must have strong children; we must protect them from the deadly toils of child-labor and must give them parks and playgrounds, rather than crowded streets. Life is a child's first right, and after that freedom from work and a place to play during his tender years. There is a startling connection between our great army of tramps and child-labor and parkless slums. The boy without a playground is father of the man without a job. We have been manufacturing our own criminals by consigning our city children to the streets, where they make the policemen their only playfellows. Swifter-footed as they are than the slow-footed 'copper,' they generally win at this policeman game, and their chests swell with pride."

The Public Playground Association of America, which held its fourth annual Congress at Rochester early in July, 1910, studied the subject from every stand-

point. As did Mr. Riis, they made much of the social gains to be secured from providing suitable playgrounds, especially for the crowded sections of our large cities. It is worth noting that although it was interest in the physical child which first suggested the playground movement, the general social uplift that follows their establishment is the thing that attracts most attention now.

As they provide a place where exuberance of spirits and the natural instincts for play that are so characteristic of the young, may find worthy and legitimate expression, they solve in a most satisfactory manner one of the most serious of a city's problems. Incidentally they also remove one of the policeman's most trying situations. Hence, as an aid to good order they appeal to city governments and their development has been correspondingly rapid. The growth of the movement has been accentuated by the interest manifested in the welfare of their employees by large business and industrial firms. That this interest is not entirely in the health of their employees, is clear from their own statements that they find a rich return for their investment in the feeling of identity of interests in the firm which these places for games and sports tend to foster.

Prayer Day for Schools

Sunday, September 11, was observed as Prayer Day for Schools. It was estimated that from 100,000 pulpits, throughout the world, sermons on various educational topics were preached, and that prayers were offered in all of these churches for the advance of education and the welfare of the children. In issuing the call for this observance the Rev. F. P. Stephenson, secretary of the National Reform Association in the United States, said:

"Especially is it asked that sermons on public education be preached on the second Lord's day in September,

or on the nearest Sabbath convenient thereto. This day, coming at the time of year when the schools everywhere are resuming their work, has been designated by several general assemblies and other religious bodies in the United States as a day for prayer for the public schools. This day is not to be confused with the day of prayer for colleges, which is observed in February. Colleges have their own problems which are altogether different from the questions which are constantly arising in the field of common-school education."

CHAPTER VIII

MORALS AND RELIGION

THERE has been so much exposure of bribery and political corruption within the last few years, and there have been so many revelations of greed and dishonesty on the part of large corporations and men with great fortunes, that they lead us very naturally to inquire whether we are not constantly as a people growing more immoral. The apparent tendency away from simplicity of life and towards luxury and the seeking of amusement gives additional importance to the question. And, probably unintentionally, the Church emphasizes it still more by the cry of a constantly increasing number of vacant pews.

It is quite necessary to stop and compare conditions of the past with the doings of the present to realize that, after all, there is an evolution towards better things. Gustavus Myers, in his recently issued "History of Great American Fortunes," shows that the conditions of money-making were far more unscrupulous and flagrant in the past than they are at present and that, on the whole, the business conscience and the business practice are constantly improving. If we may judge from the vicious attacks recently made by James Stark of Boston on the character of our Revolutionary heroes, both the political and the business doings of that day were incomparably worse than they are now.

There is a class of writers who seem to take a peculiar delight in revealing the "seamy side of history." While their influence is wholly destructive, so far as the public ideals are concerned, they do furnish a view of the past which more than offsets the "yellow-journalism" of the

present. On the better side of things, it takes but little study and reflection to reveal a constant growth in business and civic integrity, in generosity and human sympathy and in the deeper feelings of life that are aroused by a contemplation of the true, the beautiful and the good.

Henry Van Dyke, in his new book "The Spirit of America," says that the real Americans are "a people of idealists engaged in a great practical task." Whether this is a correct analysis of the fundamental characteristics of our people or not, it is unquestionably true that the ideals and moral convictions of a people lie at the very foundation of their public as well as their private life. And the reason, no doubt, that so much indignation and regret is expressed at all malfeasance in morals is because a failure to measure up to our own ideals as a people now attracts public attention. When these things were common, less attention and less public condemnation were given to them.

But this common sense of condemnation of the wrong should continue to grow. No nation is worth while which does not vision a goal of the highest possible moral attainment of which it is capable. This is also true of the individual. Intelligence and skill are after all futile things, if they are not built upon integrity and courage—honesty of purpose, and fearlessness and persistency, in applying them to righteous service. Hence, it is more important that we educate for *moral* greatness than for *intellectual* greatness.

Aside from moral uprightness, the special feature of the life of the spirit that has received most emphasis during the past year is that of self-reliance. This spirit was a dominant factor during the formative period of our history. Self-support and self-control are even more needed in this later democracy. Possibly our forefathers enjoyed an advantage in the stress of circumstances which required each individual to rely so fully upon self for help and guidance. But, assuredly,

if the demands for a better and more immediate preparation for life and for effective service mean anything, if the demand for a more worthy patriotism, and the call for a more unselfish action in the public service, mean anything, they mean a nobler development of this noble quality of self-reliance. For it was in a spirit of true self-reliance, expressed both for himself and for the American people, that Lincoln announced at Gettysburg that "Government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not perish from the earth."

But the man who gets his political opinions from his party, who will not assert his own integrity in the face of the fear of losing caste or favor, and who is willing to accept more than he gives in return, does not possess this Lincolnian self-reliance. He lacks the true dignity of manhood. He misses the consciousness and joy of strength that can come only from ability to know, to feel, and to do in firm reliance upon self. It is but a short step from this self-reliance to the performance of duty. And, as Kant long ago said, there is a certain dignity in every man who does his duty. It comes from the consciousness of being worth while in the world. It is a prime specific for destructive impulses and unhappiness everywhere.

There has been a strong tendency during the past year to recast the list of fundamental virtues. The great emphasis laid upon self-reliance is but one of these efforts. The tendency has been to group and to concrete them. Ex-President Roosevelt indicated this tendency when he listed the fundamental virtues as the good home, conscientious fatherhood and motherhood, faithfulness and efficiency in labor, and regard for the welfare of others. We have it also in such expressions as "the square deal;" "Play the game fairly," etc.

The use of the story in concreting virtue is as old as civilization itself. This idea has also for a long time been

supplemented with tremendous force by the picture. The good picture organizes virtue so that it can be grasped at a glance. Mr. Fairchild has made use of this idea in the teaching of

Moral Education by Means of Photography

Educators, since the time of Comenius, have known something of the value of pictures in conveying instruction. Although the pictures in Comenius's "Orbis Pictus" were crude, they were an attempt to appeal to the sense upon which we rely for so much of our knowledge. This book was used as a text-book for over two centuries in Germany, was translated into English, and so spread the fame of the author that tradition claims that, when President Dunston of Harvard resigned in 1654, Comenius was asked to become his successor.

The main purpose of the *Orbis Pictus* was to inculcate the moral teaching which, even in that early day, appealed to this great educator as of prime importance in the training of the young. This same idea of the powerful appeal of the picture has been taken up by the Moral Education Board, which has its headquarters in Baltimore. But they have improved upon the ideas of Comenius by using slides for the projecting lantern, instead of ordinary pictures. These slides are made from photographs of actual scenes and occurrences, and are organized into closely related general subjects which are woven into a more or less connected account by the teacher or the lecturer.

The idea was worked out by Mr. Milton Fairchild of Albany, N. Y., at a considerable expenditure of time and money in securing photographs and preparing material. The scheme is now backed by Mr. Bernard N. Baker, a trustee of Johns Hopkins University, who for some years as a public spirited man has been deeply interested in the various moral problems

Moral Ed.
Board

"Illustrated
Morals"

of the day. Mr. Fairchild had some years of experience in teaching simple moral truths to children when, in 1897, he determined to give his entire time to the subject by studying the moral instincts of children and the natural processes through which either moral or immoral habits are formed. His experience is best told in his own words:

"Boys and girls frequently talk about the right and wrong of matters that affect their lives, and often with a sincere determination to get at the right. The secret of moral instruction appeared to lie in some arrangement by which the teacher could influence the natural moral discussion. I thought at first that incidents from newspapers and from history could be described to classes and be used as the basis for discussion; but words alone will not make real to children that which they have not seen. Besides, after the recital of the incident to be discussed, the boys and girls want the moralizing skipped and the next story told." (See *World's Work* of March, 1910.)

It was at this juncture he says that the thought of using photographs of actual life as the basis of the instruction occurred to him. After an exciting occurrence boys and girls discuss the right and wrong of it for days, and there are always leaders in these discussions whose word carries great weight with the others. In a series of properly grouped life-sized photographs thrown on a screen, the man telling the story woven around these pictures could readily serve as a leader of the train of thoughts and feelings aroused by them.

Some idea of the general scope of these illustrated moral talks may be gotten from the lesson on "The True Sportsman." Through the pictures and the connecting talk, the following eight great laws of true sport are emphasized:

1. Sport is for sport's sake—not for gain.
2. Play the game within the rules.
3. Be courteous and friendly in your games.
4. A sportsman must have courage.

5. The umpire must be allowed to decide the play.
6. Honor for the victors, and no derision for the vanquished.
7. The true sportsman is a good loser in his games.
8. The sportsman may have pride in his success, but no conceit.

So great has been the success of this idea of "Illustrated **Morals**," that the work has been extended to include civic problems and problems of conservation. The difficulties in the way are such as occur in connection with the securing and selecting of effective story-telling photographs, the adaptation of the work to the various degrees of development and the variety of local interests, the danger of lifeless or too lengthy talks, and the unavoidable trouble and expense connected with the work. The Moral Education Board, however, is encouraged to believe that they are meeting, through these illustrated talks and in an impressive way, a real need.

This fundamental need was well expressed recently by Professor Swain, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology: "The safety of the nation does not depend upon whether our young people are taught the location of Lake Titicaca or of the River Ebro, nor upon their ability to add up columns of figures, but it does depend upon their realization of the obligations to their fellow-men and the necessity of playing the game of life fairly."

The Moral Value of Community Education

But all are not in school to receive the moral help of these life-portrayals, or of any of the other forms of moral instruction found in the good modern school. This makes important the community influence which finds expression either in continuation work of some form, or in the use of the school as a great center of social uplift.

Society is beginning to realize that the work of the world is held back fully as much by people who have

stopped learning as it is by active evil. Probably it is more hindered, when account is taken of the moral danger into which the active life-forces of young people who have left school tend to lead them, and also of the fossilized ideas of those who not only have ceased to learn but have permitted themselves to get into a state in which learning is out of the question.

A very impressive illustration of the effects of an improvement in industrial intelligence and skill upon social conditions, is furnished by the recently established trade schools for boys and girls in London. The testimony is to the effect that improvement in these respects has carried with it a most remarkable uplift in moral and social conditions.

And it is not the young people alone who are benefited; for the good effects are rapidly extending to the home and to the places where the young people are employed.

One report states that "many of the employers have been so impressed by the method of training in these schools that they have endeavored to secure an improvement in their own work-rooms." Also that "parents are so much impressed by the remarkable improvement in mental tone, in physical development and in general intelligence, consequent on trade-school training, that the larger proportion of places are now filled by paying students. Mechanics and artisans are willing to forego the earnings of their children for two years, to pay a fee of 10 s. per term, and the many incidental expenses of fares, clothing, meals, etc., in order to insure their future industrial efficiency."

There are two lessons in regard to morality that each year are standing out more clearly for the encouragement

of all teachers and social workers. The first is the abundant evidence that character does not depend upon heredity; that it is worth while to spend money, time and effort upon the children of the most depraved parentage. The second lesson is that

London
Trade-
Schools and
Morals

Heredity
and Envi-
ronment

change of environment at an early age nearly always effects an entire change of character.

These things are being demonstrated in a very practical way in such reform schools as the George Junior Republic at Freeville, N. Y., and the Philanthropic Society's Farm School (often referred to because of the "Tiny Town" built by the boys), at Redhill, in the County of Surrey, England. In the health-giving and bracing surroundings of these institutions, evil tendencies are checked, interest in worthy activities is awakened and stimulated, and a desire for honest and honorable life replaces the vicious life which was fostered by the poisoned atmosphere of a former weak or criminal environment.

The fact that some of the best reformatory institutions can report as high as 90 per cent. of their boys as leading worthy lives after leaving, should be a lesson to all who are interested in education and a higher social order that no boy is so bad, so troublesome, or so hopeless as to be beyond intelligent efforts for his redemption. Although he may for a time test both our wisdom of management and our patience with his deficiencies, the possibility of redeeming him for morality and usefulness should gird us with strength and hope.

MOVING PICTURES.—Recently a boy was arrested for burglary, who accounted for his crime by saying that he had seen a burglary portrayed in a moving-picture show and wished to see if he had the ability to perform a similar feat.

Events like this, and the wide-spread evil results of moving pictures of the recent prize-fight at Reno, have called attention with particular emphasis to the possibilities for immorality of these exhibitions that appeal so generally to public patronage. Like all good things that may be put to evil use, their power for evil is proportionate to the extent and intensity of their appeal. But when used for wrong purposes these exhibitions

present the additional dangers of cheapness and of a peculiar attraction for young people. That they demand the most careful moral censorship is evident.

Morality in Our Colleges

Mr. C. F. Birdseye, in his recent book "The Reorganization of our Colleges," makes a severe arraignment concerning the moral condition of their students. He states, in part, that after gathering together his facts, secured through talks and correspondence with "hundreds of college professors and officials, students, deans, medical men and graduates" of colleges and college homes from Maine to California and from Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Dakota to the farthest south, he was appalled at what he found in many institutions. "Some are practically free from the evils hereinafter referred to; others reek with them."

His charges are that in many colleges and universities, as well as in a very considerable part of college home life, the conditions are "morally rotten—terribly so." "Some of the worst conditions prevail in minor denominational institutions which are presumed to be ultra religious." His specific charges are along the lines of smoking to excess, drunkenness, and lewdness. He holds the college authorities, the alumni and the college and fraternity banquets as being responsible for the drinking. And he says the extent to which the other evils are prevalent in any institution depends upon how wisely and thoroughly the matter is studied and treated by its authorities. Very much also, no doubt, depends upon the directness and sincerity of the interest in the welfare of the student body, which is manifested by the faculty.

Mr. Birdseye's accusations have been regarded by many as being extreme. With a view of ascertaining the conditions in the higher institutions in Ohio, an

investigation has been conducted under the auspices of the Ohio College Association and a report of the results made to that body. This report was published in the May issue of the *Educational Review*, and shows either that conditions vary quite considerably in different places or, in some institutions, it is easier to get at the facts than it is in others. While almost everywhere there are evidences of drinking, gambling, or sexual vice, the amount is relatively small when compared with what is going on among young men outside the colleges. That there is an injurious amount of smoking going on is evident from the statement, from an Ohio College, that from five to ten per cent. of its students smoke regularly and probably fifty per cent. occasionally. But then smoking would scarcely be classed as a vice. Some report no evidence of drinking, gambling, or sexual vice; while others report a small amount of drinking and in two cases medical examiners report evidences of as high as ten per cent. of sexual vice. The highest amount of drinking reported from the investigation was that of from ten to fifteen per cent. of the students.

Although the American college has on the whole been under an unwarranted amount of sharp criticism within the past few years, Mr. Birdseye's investigation has been a timely one and, even if his facts have been so presented as to lead to an estimate which on the whole is unfair and exaggerated, he has called attention to a matter which unquestionably needs serious consideration. This is the need of giving prompt and serious attention, in the wisest possible way, to the license which has developed in our college and university life through our blind devotion to the traditions of liberty in governing the great student-body.

Whatever the causes of this license—whether it be lax government, thoughtlessness on the part of alumni, professionalism in athletics, fraternity banquets, or

indifference on the part of the faculty—college officials need to realize both the importance of the matter and the danger of assuming that all is well within their respective institutions. That existing evils cannot be remedied by college ordinance, or even by punishing occasional individuals, is evident. But if faculty and students will work together to correct conditions and to instill a college sentiment that will frown upon dishonesty, or vice in any form, then, in the healthier atmosphere thus created, these things will as nearly disappear as can be expected in any aggregation of people brought together from the varying conditions of our different communities and homes.

Moral and Religious Training

A conference on the "Moral and Religious Training of the Young" was held at Sagamore Beach, Mass., in September. This was the first of what promises to become an annual meeting for consideration of these supremely important subjects.

Dr. Francis E. Clark, who is President of the United Society of Christian Endeavor, declared in opening the Conference, "That the descendants of the Pilgrims must seek to regain the educational ideals which they had tried to establish, and which in a measure we have lost." Dr. George H. Martin, Secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, regarded the weak points of our educational system as the country school and the high school. The majority of high school teachers, he said, had neither the knowledge nor the experience for dealing with new problems. But he believed that boys and girls leaving the grammar school have a higher moral standard than is common in the business and social circles which they enter. On the whole he considered that the influence of the public schools was making for righteousness.

An interesting report was made by Professor Amos R. Wells, of Boston, in regard to replies received from teachers who were asked if they approved of secret societies in high schools. Out of 190 replies received, all replied with an emphatic No; because they believed that these societies almost invariably tended to poorer work and even to immorality.

Consideration of the teaching of religion in the schools ended in the usual verdict of the "impossibility of teaching religion in the public schools because of the variety of creeds represented." The Conference, however, adopted a resolution in which they declared in favor of a "dutiful recognition of God, in fraternal relations with men, and in expectation of a life hereafter determined by the life led here."

Religion

Professor Hadley of Yale says that this is distinctly an age of faith and a land of faith, despite the fact that so many claim that the intensely practical forces of the country and of the age have caused faith to decay. "We have lost faith in some things, but we have gained faith in others, and the faiths we have gained are greater in number and importance and inspiration than the faiths we have lost."

Faith

True, the results of man's efforts to penetrate into the deep things of the universe, and the wonderful grasp of the constructive powers of man's intellect, have sometimes, for a brief period, overshadowed the sustaining power of a simple faith. But after all, the discoveries in chemistry and physics and biology cannot wholly blind us to the limitations of science nor to the permanent value of an intelligent faith. "The position of the agnostic, who does not know nor care for anything beyond the results of natural science, is a startling example of what comes to a man who exercises faith without

intelligence. It is a distinctive feature of Christianity that it insists on the combination of faith and intelligence."

The past year has been remarkable for the public expression of a continued allegiance of the people to a fundamental faith in the things of the higher spiritual life. Never before have there been so many and so distinctly representative gatherings of the people of various sects and beliefs. Never before has a spirit of liberality so well aided in securing enthusiasm and determination upon the essentials of Divine belief.

In May, the World's Sunday School Convention met in Washington. Representative Bible School workers from all parts of the world were present at this convention and in some way took part in its exercises. Sunday, May 22, was made impressive from the fact that every Sabbath School belonging to the Sunday School Union throughout the world, was using the same order of service as the one at that time being recited in Washington. During the "Bible Class Parade" down Pennsylvania Avenue, Congress paid the Convention the distinguished honor of adjourning while it was in progress.

From the statistics presented at this Convention, it does not look as if religious interest, especially in the spiritual training of the young, is dying out. An enrollment of approximately 28,000,000 was reported for the Protestant Sabbath Schools alone.

A World's Missionary Conference was held in Edinburgh, Scotland, in June. At this conference, John R. Mott of New York, Chairman of the Commission on Carrying the Gospel to all the Non-Christian World, made a most interesting report. In this, he called attention to the fact that never before has the Christian world faced such a favorable combination of circumstances for evangelistic movements. In China, there is a unique oppor-

tunity; India and the whole Mohammedan world, especially Persia and Turkey, are opening up favorable fields for work; there are now 338 different religious and philanthropic organizations that are maintaining missionaries in the field. These missionaries number 19,280 and represent physicians as well as ministers and lay missionary workers.

That our colleges are not entirely Godless, is shown by the work done by the Student Volunteer Movement for Foreign Missions, which during the year held a convention at Rochester, N. Y. At this meeting it was stated that, since the inception of the movement in 1886, over 4300 students had sailed for the missionary field and that the students of our colleges and universities are now giving \$127,000 per year for the support of the work; Yale heading the list with a contribution of \$10,000. Among women's colleges, Vassar headed the list with \$3385. The number of students now engaged in the study of mission work for both home and abroad was placed at 25,000.

The Eighth Triennial Convention of the World's Women's Christian Temperance Union opened in Glasgow, Scotland, on June the fourth. Representatives from almost every civilized country in the world were present. There were almost 200 representatives from the United States, the country of "Mother Stewart," the "Grand Old Crusader" who started the movement.

There was also a great and enthusiastic gathering of the Catholics at a Eucharistic Congress which was held at Montreal, Canada. The liberal spirit that was in general manifested at this meeting, is one of the encouraging signs of the way in which all faiths and beliefs are drawing together for the spiritual regeneration of the world.

A World's Congress of Free Christianity and Religious Progress met in Berlin, Germany, from August 6 to August 10. This meeting drew together over 2000 registered members, and most remarkable of all, more than

20 nations and 40 different religious faiths were represented in the Congress.

Large audiences in various parts of Berlin were addressed in the evenings by men and women familiar with work connected with the relations of religion to social life. Professor Troeltsch, of Heidelberg, affirmed that a great religious development is approaching and that all permanent culture is closely associated with the vital principles of Christianity.

To assist those unfamiliar with other languages a brief synopsis of the most important addresses and discussions was printed in three languages. The devout spirit which characterized most of the proceedings, and the evidences of brotherliness which prevailed amidst all differences of view, proved to be a satisfying part of the Congress. (See the *Outlook* for Oct. 1, 1910.)

CHAPTER IX

CIVIL AND POLITICAL PROBLEMS

THE signs are multiplying that the time is rapidly approaching when there will be a swift and free enactment of the will of the people into petition and statute. And as never before will the character of these petitions and the wisdom of these statutes depend upon the quality of citizenship. Under any form of enlightened government, people develop and progress only through group activities and by means of the institutions established by these group activities. But there is little virtue in institutions and none in the group, which is not first found in the character and personality of the individuals composing the group.

This is the lesson which is being driven home in all countries and under all forms of government. Too much reliance has been placed in worthy institutions, and too great dependence set upon apparently binding statutes. We have forgotten that, after all, much more depends upon the nobility of the desire and the firmness of the will which make use of the institution and that obey the statute. In the United States, particularly, the wealth of our resources and the richness of our opportunities have blinded us to the fact that resources and opportunities may open the way to danger and disaster, as well as to safety and success. All depends upon the use of them that is made in the all important *now*.

Professor Arthur W. Dunn, who is in charge of the Department of Civics in the Indianapolis Schools, clearly voiced the idea, in so far as it pertains to the resources and opportunities of the child, in a recent statement: "We must get away from the notion that we are train-

ing the child to be a citizen in the future. We must start out with the idea that the child is now a citizen.

The Child
now a
Citizen

It is a mistake to think that the child is *going to* be a citizen,—he is a citizen now. He is a citizen, perhaps with simple relations to the community life; and what we are doing is to take this individual with these simple relations to life and extend these relations throughout the community life as he proceeds. The child should learn, at the very outset, that he is going to school because the community expects that by doing that very thing he is learning to become a better citizen and qualifying himself to perform civic service." And this is the lesson of obligation, for the benefits of opened resources and granted opportunities, which every citizen of this great Republic needs to lay upon his mind and heart.

The happenings of the past year have greatly emphasized the fact that the true progress of a people is not measured by material prosperity, but that it can best be gauged by their standards of action and by their judgments as to what conduct is moral and what is immoral. But, above all, it is to be judged by the effectiveness with which they make their approval of the moral or their disapproval of the immoral felt. "It is usually far more pleasant to condone political crookedness than to denounce it; it seems far easier for many otherwise good citizens to be disgusted at civic corruption than to be earnestly, actively, continuously engaged in an effort to stamp it out. And yet no community can thrive, no republic long exist as a real republic, where corruption is called by more pleasant names and allowed to eat into the public life. Civic purity, civic fearlessness, civic earnestness need to be taught, preached and practiced."

On August 5, a granite shaft erected in Provincetown, Mass., to commemorate the signing of the famous compact in the cabin of the Mayflower, was dedicated by President Taft. No other part of our land excels New

England in keeping before the public noted deeds and worthy efforts occurring within her borders, whether in the distant past or in the nearer present. In this respect, she sets an example well worth following by other sections of the country where there are deeds and people well worth public recognition. There are few sections of the country that do not have something well worth commemorating in a way that will exert a constant though may be quiet appeal to patriotism, philanthropy, or honest ambition. Such monuments and commemorative days become especially effective when judiciously used by the teachers as a background for lessons in history, or for the purpose of developing civic pride, worthy and persistent effort, and moral integrity.

Mayflower-
Compact
Monument

Political Tendencies

There is abundant evidence of a growing distrust in our representative government; fortunately not as a form of government, but as it is administered. The introduction of such new political ideas as Government by Commission, the Initiative, Referendum and Recall is evidence of this. But more remarkable than this, to a student of our government, is the strong tendency towards increasing Federal power, as if in that lies more hope of an honest and effective administration. This tendency is in such marked contrast to the stand taken by the framers of the Constitution and the representatives of the wish of the people in the first Congress, as to be rather startling.

Centraliza-
tion

While the early Federalists desired a strong central government, it was for different reasons than the ones now impelling us towards centralizing power. It should be remembered that it is not because the individual voter in America has a belief in his divine right to have a hand in his own government that he advocates centralization,

but because he feels that this stronger central power can and will more honestly, fearlessly, and effectively—and possibly with less trouble to himself—carry out his will than, under existing conditions, can be hoped for from his State and local government.

That this condition is not a wholesome one, is evident. No citizen should question the desirability or naturalness of Federal control in matters which reach beyond or are bigger than his State. But when, through a feeling of helplessness, indifference, or selfish engrossment in ease or other interests, this citizen sits supinely by and wishes for Federal control to do what he himself should be patriotic, firm, and fearless enough to do, the tendency is decidedly bad. Cannot the schools do something to build up a better type of citizen than this?—a type of man, and of woman too, that will be both able and willing to elect representatives of their will who can be trusted, or who will with a strong arm call them to account if they do not carry on their governmental business properly and in the interests of the people they represent.

There has been during the past year a remarkable growth of the idea of Government by Commission. At the municipal elections in the Spring of 1910, sixty-eight cities chose Commissioners instead of Councilmen as heretofore. The Middle West is the most pronounced in its approval of the plan. Kansas leads with 16 towns thus managed. Texas is next with 14. Massachusetts is the only eastern State in which the plan has been tried; it has 5 places so governed. Buffalo and Mt. Vernon in New York have voted for such control but the Legislature has not yet granted their charters.

Some of the advantages claimed for Government by Commission are:

1. It gives a directness of responsibility that tends to high efficiency. The usual plan is to have one commissioner for each important branch of city government,

each commissioner having complete charge of his department as its sole manager.

2. The few officials to elect enables the people to inquire more carefully into their fitness than where there are so many to elect.

3. The Power of Recall, which is associated with Government by Commission, permits inquiry into the work of these public servants and, if they are deemed unfaithful, their prompt removal by the vote of the people.

4. It furnishes a simpler, more business-like Government in our rapidly growing urban populations, with their extremely complex problems. These problems demand efficiency and not party affiliation for their proper solution.

We have reached a stage of political development in which there must be something more than tactics in political work; there must be convictions. And we are rapidly approaching the time when, as Issues, not
Parties in England, we shall think and act on *issues* instead of dwelling on the *personalities* of candidates—exercising due care of course that the personality shall be one of entire fitness.

We are also realizing that in the last analysis it is the moral consciousness and moral stamina of the voter, quite as much as the fitness of the candidate or the justice of the issue, that is at stake. It is the ignorance, cowardice, or indifference of the voter that makes political corruption possible. The people are directly responsible for the character and conduct of all elected officials, whether their position be high or low.

Governmental Control

The strike on the French railroads, which in October paralyzed traffic in the whole of northern France, forcibly illustrates what might happen in this country under governmental ownership of such business activities.

Whether the serious trouble was precipitated by too great interference, on the part of governmental officialdom, with the details of administering the railroads, or whether it was a natural consequence of the government's close connection with all such business projects, is a question for the economist and the statesman. But the fact remains that such intimate affiliations on the part of the Government with matters which have in the past been regarded as the legitimate province of private enterprise alone, always hold out the possibility of dangerous political abuse and disturbance. And this is true entirely aside from the government's right to exercise a restraining hand in their management. Nor does it affect the question of the advisability of such restraining power being granted to the government.

Reckless Criticism

The late John G. Carlisle, who for so many years served as Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, left such a meagre estate that, if his illness had been prolonged, he would have died in poverty.

Ex-Secretary Carlisle

This fact serves as a complete refutation of the charge that when, as Secretary, he made his famous arrangement with the Morgan Syndicate to replenish the Treasury with gold in order to defeat the efforts of conscienceless conspirators to bring on a panic by presenting an overwhelming amount of paper money for redemption, he sold himself to Wall Street for an immense sum.

When, soon afterwards, he broke with his party and declared for the gold standard, his accusers claimed that their charges were confirmed. The facts now revealed show these critics to have been both cruel and unjust, and that by their words they placed themselves among those who are ever ready to think evil rather than good of a man, especially if he be in public office and is thought to

have any opportunity for graft or the distribution of unjust patronage.

While unquestionably any wise servant of the people will, in these days, seek to serve the true interests of the people and will, as far as possible, transact all public business in the open, yet there are times when he has a right to expect the loyal support of the people until he is at liberty to take them into his confidence.

At all events, we teach civics and civic and political duty to young people much less impressively when we get into the faultfinding suspicious habit of mind which condemns without seeking the facts. Nor can the habit of justice and useful citizenship be built up by such teaching. The cultivation of such a spirit of unfairness defeats the very purpose of all government—reverence for law and for its representatives—the dignity of the State and esteem for its public servants.

As a people we are too prone to believe and to condemn; and, when public malfeasance does occur, we are too lax in punishment. Recent political history furnishes no sadder record than that of the Ex-Secretary of the Treasury who served his country to the best of his ability, and then in his pride silently bore the flings of injustice and malice until relieved by death.

CHAPTER X

EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH

ALL true friends of education have sympathized with the conditions which have existed in the Southern States for so many years. The Civil War not only left the South bankrupt and with its resources, at least for a time, almost unavailable, but also with the great problem of caring for an entirely dependent and almost wholly ignorant colored population which in most places greatly outnumbered the whites. But splendid progress has been made, especially within the last ten years. The vast resources of the South have attracted Northern capital, the Southern people themselves are awakening to a renewed hope and energy, and especially has there been a remarkable development of appreciation and interest in the School as a means of rehabilitation, safety, and growth.

Nearly a thousand delegates composed of teachers and men prominent in the cause of education met in convention in the capital city of Arkansas, early in April last year, to discuss problems pertaining to education in the South. This was the thirteenth annual Conference for Education in the South that has been held. The annual address was delivered by Robert C. Ogden, president of the Conference.

Mr. Ogden in outlining the work already accomplished by this organization, by the Association of State Superintendents and Commissioners of Education, and especially by the General Education Board, said that the last had been following three main lines of work: (1) The promotion of practical farming in the Southern States; (2) the development of

General
Ed. Board

a system of public high schools in the South; and (3) the promotion of higher education throughout the United States. He said further that:

"The general study of educational conditions in the Southern States had led the Board to believe that the greatest lack in that region was that of public high schools. It is the policy of the Board to establish these through existing organizations. Arrangement was, therefore, made with the several State Universities whereby they could assume leadership and the direction of a movement designed to develop systems of high schools.

"The General Education Board appropriates to each university a sum sufficient to pay the salary and traveling expenses of a special high school representative. This man goes to counties throughout the state, arouses and organizes public sentiment favorable to high schools and secures their establishment and maintenance."

He said that it is safe to assume that, as a result of this coöperative initiative on the part of the Board, over 400 new high schools have been established in the South within the last ten years, and that several millions of dollars have been raised by the people themselves for buildings and equipment. Virginia and North Carolina have taken the lead in this respect. The gifts of the General Education Board are always made in the form of an endowment.

The Education of the Negro

But the presence of so many negroes in the South has made its educational problems peculiarly complex and difficult of solution. The subservient condition of the negro, combined with his color, his poverty and his ignorance at the time of his emancipation, have left a race antipathy which will require both time and education to remove. These race problems have often proved

a menace to government, an obstacle to advancement, a hindrance to the rapid development of education, and have contributed to the feelings of aversion to any idea of equality of opportunity or of standing.

Thoughtful people believe that the only possible solution of the race problem must come through the education of the negro. And, as this is too large a problem for the South alone, even in its constantly improving condition, there should be liberal National aid rendered. Private philanthropy has already done much, and in many places the Southern people themselves have been as helpful as their means will permit, but the issues are too important and the problems too urgent to rely upon means that are either inadequate or not to be depended upon.

According to Booker T. Washington, who no doubt knows more about the negro than any other single person in the South, the negroes now number about 7,000,000 and occupy nearly one-eighth of all the farming land of the country. But while the average farm in the West produces more than \$1000 worth of products, the average farm of the negro yields only \$340 worth of products. Hence, this condition demands and will well repay special efforts to instruct the negro in agriculture. Efforts at educating the negro have been made only in spots in the South. And in South Carolina in 1909 the average amount spent on the public education of the negro was only \$1.70; while at the same time in Iowa \$18.33 per pupil was spent irrespective of color. This small expenditure means school-houses unfit for any human being, a poor teacher, and school for only two to five months per year.

He then points with confidence to the fact that the County where he lives, Macon County, Ala., has fully demonstrated that it pays to educate the negro. There the school term is eight or nine months, the teachers receive good wages, and the children are taught not only

Statements
of B. T.
Washington

from books but also cooking, table-serving, sewing, gardening and farming of all kinds, poultry-raising, hog-raising, and dairying. Teachers there take pride in the school-farms which usually adjoin the school-house and whose products serve towards the support of the teachers. Such conditions cannot fail to reach and change every phase of the life of a community.

Doctor Washington in a tour which he made through the Southern States early in 1910, said some very pertinent things about "The Negro Problem." Among other things, that in every community where the two races are present "Every negro has a white friend; every white man has a negro on whom he can depend;" and that both races in the South have suffered from the fact that the worst that occurs there is spread to the ends of the earth, while the best things which occur in every community are seldom known outside of that community. The old method of improving the negro was to teach him "to be good"—now we are adding something to this and are endeavoring to teach him "to be good for something."

At the inauguration, early in 1910, of Dr. George A. Gates as the new President of Fiske University, the oldest and best known of the twenty negro colleges, the Mayor of Nashville was present and said:

"I am glad that the time has come when the white race is ready to take the colored race by the hand and build it up, educationally and financially. In this Republic we must live for each other under one God and one flag."

Fiske
University

The fourteenth annual meeting of the Hampton Negro Conference was held at Hampton, Va., last July. Since over 80 per cent. of the colored people live in rural districts and over 50 per cent. work on farms, questions pertaining to farming and rural life naturally received much attention. However, there were also valuable reports and discussions upon fraternal life insurance and the prevention of

Hampton
Negro
Conference

tuberculosis. Due emphasis was also given to the need of cultivating the fundamental virtues among colored people.

An important outcome of the meeting was the spirit of coöperation evident among all present. There was also evidence of the growth of the feeling that not only must the colored people in the South learn to help themselves and to help one another, but that it is also essential that they must secure the sympathy and the intelligent coöperation of their white neighbors.

Considerable anxiety was aroused early last year by the introduction into the Maryland Legislature of a series of laws designed to eliminate the negro from all participation in the political affairs of the State. These were known as the Digges Bills. They were resolutely vetoed by the Governor, as being a violation of the constitutional rights of the negro and as also calculated to endanger the welfare of the State. In calling upon Governor Crothers to veto these bills the *Baltimore Sun* characterized them as "chimerical folly that will plunge this orderly and tranquil community into a turmoil that would be as mischievous as it would be futile, that would endanger the settlement that has been reached in the Southern States, where the negro question is a real question, and that would chill the zeal for Democratic principles and Democratic leadership in the North and West."

The Digges
Bills

PART VI

CHAPTER XI

FOREIGN EDUCATIONAL INTERESTS

Argentina

THE Pan-American Conference, held in Buenos Ayres during the summer of 1910, served to concentrate attention upon this most progressive and most successful of the South American republics.

Pan-American
Conference

Although Argentina is already one of the most important factors in the world's food supply, it still has vast areas of undeveloped fertile land. This makes it one of the favorite resorts for the emigrant, especially from Spain and Italy. As most of the immigrants of this Latin-American country come from these Latin countries of Europe, Argentina does not have the serious problems of assimilation known to other countries like the United States. This greatly facilitates the work of its schools and makes its governmental problems comparatively easy of solution.

Its commerce is eagerly sought for by the greater commercial nations and, although naturally its heaviest correspondence is with Italy and Spain, its heaviest commerce is carried on with Great Britain. The country is full of business enterprise and the railroad mileage greater in proportion than is that of the United States. Buenos Ayres, the capital, is a wealthy and beautiful city, up-to-date in all modern developments. It is the metropolis of America south of the Equator, just as New York is the metropolis north of the Equator.

Following the Pan-American Conference in September, Argentina, in common with the other South Ameri-

can republics, celebrated the centennial of her declaration of independence of Spanish control. The beginning of what is now known as Argentina was the Spanish viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, which included Bolivia, Paraguay, and Uruguay. “Buenos Ayres” was ruled by viceroys from Spain until in 1808, when the people refused to recognize Joseph Bonaparte as King of Spain. Then in 1810 began the struggle for independence which was commemorated in September of last year.

One of the most interesting features of Argentina’s celebration of her hundredth birthday was the agricultural exhibition which closed October 1. The remarkably fine collection of well-bred stock—cattle, horses and sheep—is said to have been the finest that was ever brought together at a world’s fair. Cattle raising is the great industry of the country and the exhibition was a great revelation of the progress of the Argentina stock-raisers to the cattlemen of other parts of the world. As an indication of Argentina’s interest in the finest breeds of cattle, there are now upwards of 85,000 blooded cattle registered in the Official Herdbook.

The Pan-American Conference brought out very prominently the progress of Argentina of late years in trade and financial stability, and this agricultural display at Palermo shows its advanced standing in its “basic industry.”

There is a great deal of ignorance in the United States of these countries to the South of us, where “the other Americans” dwell. That we should take so little interest in Argentina, which has an area four times that of the original thirteen colonies of the United States and is one of the world’s reliable sources for wheat and cattle products, is not to our credit as its foster parent. That it shall figure still more largely in affairs South of the Equator is evident from the progressive character of its government.

Centennial
of Inde-
pendence

Ignorance
in Regard
to S. A.

The new President, Señor Roque Saenz Pena, has announced that he proposes a modification of the electoral law, which will place the government more fully under the will of the people. He also proposes to improve the condition of the working classes and to endeavor to secure a lowering of the prices of articles of first necessity.

Australia

During the year 1909, the Director of Education of New South Wales, P. Board, M.A., made an extended tour for the purpose of studying the educational practices and conditions in the United States and Canada.

He has made a report upon his visit, in which he dwells enthusiastically upon our better type of rural school-house and contrasts it with the poor school-buildings which he found in the rural districts of Germany. However, he regards the average American teacher as inferior to the German.

Burma

A statement from the recent report of the Director of Public Instruction in far-off Burma illustrates very forcibly the true spirit of the moral instruction which is so greatly emphasized in the Eastern World:

"If, however, religious faith is indeed decaying or decayed, the pattering of Pali versicles, the repetition of sacred texts and the inculcation of maxims no longer potent will do less than nothing for its restoration. We are then thrown back upon the creation of a moral conviction apart from religion, for which the establishment of a valid principle of life and conduct is requisite. And this is the business of education." Moral

This is in strong contrast with the Western idea of morality, with its strong background of faith and its effort to get into vital harmony with the Divine will.

Canada

A great Catholic Eucharistic Congress, the first ever held in the New World, opened at Montreal, September 6th, with impressive ceremonies. King George of England sent a cablegram expressing his wishes for the success of the Congress and of the many Catholic subjects under his dominion. Cardinal Vannutelli, the accredited representative of his Holiness the Pope, delivered an impressive address on church unity which had toleration as its dominant note. In this address, he spoke of the Pope as the "Supreme Pastor," and referred to the strong bond which unites Catholics of the two continents as they observe the same Sacrament of the Eucharist.

China

China is a marvelously rich country, both for agriculture and in mineral resources. Its people are good farmers and good traders. They are industrious and painstaking to a degree almost unknown among Western nations. But they are among the most conservative people in the world, although they are wonderfully imitative and can assume an interest and appearance of assent which perfectly disguise their real feelings. This, combined with a marvelous forbearance which is but a veneer for the pride that is born of a civilization which was old when Western civilization was in its infancy, makes them difficult for foreigners to understand or properly to appreciate.

But China with its civilization of a remote past has been brought face to face with the problems which the more progressive nations have been solving for the past decades, and which their closer touch with world movements has enabled them to meet with success. These new China proposes to solve by adopting the prac-

tices and methods that have brought success to Western nations. Whether she will succeed depends upon the real motives and interests which lie beneath all of her apparent zeal.

In his book on Education in the Far East, Professor Charles F. Thwing classifies the problems which China shall have to solve as: 1. The biological problem. Hygienic conditions are so bad that only a third or a fourth of the children born in China reach adult life. Peking draws its water-supply from wells and pours its waste into the streets. The homes everywhere are for the most part dark, damp, dismal, and desolate. The Chinese physicians are superstitious and treat disease as if it were the result of a conflict between spirits of light and spirits of darkness.

China's
Problems

2. The sociological problem. This is even more impressive because of the way in which the daily life is interwoven with superstition. The gateway to every Chinese house opens on a wall, because the evil spirits move only in straight lines and are thus balked in their efforts to effect an entrance. Even death itself has a sociological significance; the length and degree of the mourning being regulated by inexorable custom. The whole social fabric is one of extreme conservatism.

3. The governmental problem. China is an oriental monarchy built upon a social democracy. There are two significant elements in the government—the absence of formal law and the presence of official dishonesty. Until very recently, the people have had no will in the making or executing of the law, there are but few formal courts, and there is no department that could be called a department of justice. The administration of justice has been largely in the hands of the Mandarins and has been a mere travesty of the term.

4. The moral problem. Religion plays a less significant part with the Chinese than it does with the Japanese. Confucianism is scarcely a religion, being rather a system

of ethical teachings which on the whole have been paralyzing to the intellect and neither inspiring to the conscience nor moving to the will.

In connection with the solution of these problems, it is well to remember that China is Asiatic and no one can quite appreciate the chasm in ethnology, religion and civilization that exists between the people of the East and the people of the West. Then, too, China is not only Asiatic but Chinese—a nation of people who are peculiarly individualistic, personal and national. And, moreover, it is exceptionally conservative, with its golden age in the past rather than before it in the future. It is also the most populous country in the world, and the remoulding influences have an almost inconceivable body of people to move. The Chinese mind is astute and, with its loyalty to the past, may seek to circumvent rather than honestly to adopt the forces of modern life.

However, China must in some way meet the world-movements which are completely engulfing her; hence, she is seeking wherever she deems it profitable for the useful learning of the Western civilization. The Government realizes both the desirability and necessity of help and suggestion from foreign countries. At the same time, however, it is exercising its own independence and energy in a way which would not have been deemed possible a decade ago. This most conservative of nations has in recent years both issued and enforced anti-opium edicts, with a view of building up the moral fiber of its men. It has carried on an anti-foot-binding crusade which has, in a few years' time, made the custom of the centuries both unpopular and unfashionable.

But most remarkable of all, is the pride with which it is bringing to the public attention historical characters and deeds which, although until recently unknown to Western people, show Chinese history to be well worth a

place in the annals of the world. What China did in the past, as well as an appreciative knowledge of what she is doing in the present, are needed if we would understand its people and get rid of the temptation to adopt a patronizing air towards them—an attitude that at once defeats any effort to enter into true friendly relations with them.

THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SHANGHAI.—One of the first Americans to enter into such an appreciative relationship with the Chinese was Rev. Dr. Gilbert Reid. He has, after many years, acquired an especially intimate knowledge of their systems of education. Some years ago he assisted in establishing what is known as the International Institute of Shanghai, an association composed of educated Chinese and people of other nationalities whose purpose has been to harmonize the differences between the foreign merchants, missionaries, and educators and the Chinese people, and to see that falsehood in regard to either Chinese or foreigners is at once repudiated. Considering the mendacious, even malicious falsehoods that have found a place in the Chinese newspapers, the value of this organization of influential people cannot be overestimated.

This Institute affords a particularly valuable avenue for influencing Chinese officials and native leaders and for reaching the great body of Chinese students. It stands on intimate footing with the Imperial Board of Education and with the Commissioners of Education who are assigned to each province. It publishes books, pamphlets, and a monthly paper. In addition it greatly extends its influence through public lectures and conferences, and through university extension courses and other classes that are established for study and research. That the Chinese are in sympathy with the Institute is shown by the fact that they have up to the present contributed nearly all of the funds for its work. What the United States will do to give it practical encouragement

remains to be seen. No more effective means of checking anti-foreign crusades can be employed than to help the Chinese educationally. The Institute has thoroughly demonstrated the readiness, nay the hunger, of the people for Western ideas and learning.

Educational influence in China has also another effective avenue open to it. This is the Canton Christian

Canton
Christian
College College, an institution which is more a university devoted to the needs of China than a religious school. It is located in Canton, the commercial metropolis of the South, just as Shanghai is the commercial metropolis of the Northern part of the empire. Canton is the nearest large Chinese city to Hong Kong and the Philippines, and its people and the people of the provinces of which it is the capital, are notably intelligent and enterprising. They have contributed liberally to the support of the College because of the broad spirit of its educational endeavor.

But the Cantonese have also been the most resentful of "Chinese exclusion" as embodied in the interpretation of the immigration laws of the United States. Their good will or enmity will figure largely in the attitude of China towards any foreign nation. The fact that most of the Chinese students in the United States come from Canton and its provinces, combined with the interest manifested by them in the Canton Christian College, gives America an educational opportunity which it should not lightly cast aside. It should be noted that they propose to erect a memorial on the college grounds to the great American diplomat, Secretary of State John Hay, the friend of China who stood for its integrity and the "open door" to its trade.

Probably no single thing shows the spirit of the "New China" more forcibly than the way in which its students have taken up athletic sports. It is not many years since it was regarded as undignified for a Chinese student to take any exercise more violent than a slow

walk. Ill health was common. Long finger nails and other impediments to physical activity were fashionable. When first taken up both baseball and football in China were played only by boys dressed in long coats. The awakening to a desire for better physical conditions has revolutionized all of this. It and the hunger for modern ideas are rapidly evolving this New China.

As Professor John Fryer, of the University of California, says (see Report of Com. of Ed. for 1909, p. 513): "The recent educational reform in China is unique in the history of the world. No national transformation has ever occurred on so large a scale, in so sudden a manner, and fraught with such far-reaching consequences to the whole human race."

Prof.
Fryer's
Report

The humiliating effects of the Boxer outbreak deeply perplexed the Chinese Government and made the question of saving the country from foreign domination the paramount one in all thoughtful minds. No effective solution at first presented itself. But, finally, the success of Japan, through her adoption of the main features of Western civilization, suggested to China that her salvation lay in adopting a similar course.

As it was evident that the supremacy of the West was so largely due to its education, China determined to sacrifice her time-honored system of national instruction in favor of the branches and methods that had given success in the arts of peace and war to the people of the West. And that the remedy might speedily be obtained it was determined to adopt the Western education in its entirety. Realizing that their ancient philosophical and ethical system had failed to keep them abreast of the progress of the world, they grew desperately in earnest in casting it aside for the newer Western ideals. They had been living too long in the past and were determined at once to live in the present.

A few months made the change. The struggle to overcome tremendous difficulties is now bravely going

on and the success is phenomenal. The old examination halls have been closed and the abandoned temples turned into school-houses. Thousands of young people have been sent to Japan, to Europe, and to America to get the full benefits of the education of these countries. "The new learning" as it is called has now become a mania all over the Empire.

Professor Fryer, whose knowledge of the Chinese is based upon his residence in China since 1861, believes that back of the intense interest in the "new learning" is a desire for complete national freedom. Foreign domination becomes more and more galling each year. The first step towards freedom is to learn all that has given power to the nations of the West. The final step is to compel foreigners to relinquish "China for the Chinese." It is a significant fact that a strong element of militarism is being drilled into pupils everywhere through instruction in the use of firearms, through military drills and showy uniforms.

EDUCATIONAL DIFFICULTIES OF CHINA.—Some of the difficulties that confront China in this effort for a better system of education are:

1. The need of an efficient foreign director for its educational affairs. Neither Chinese officials nor private individuals possess the necessary knowledge and training to pass quickly over from the age of Confucius to that of modern civilization. "From the president of the new board of education downward there is a general ignorance of such requirements as curriculum, methods, systems, sequences, prescribed and elective work, and general control."

2. Because it is easily seen that there is money to be made from the new education, there is serious temptation to the graft, speculation, and misrepresentation that are entirely too common in the official life of China. Schools with high-sounding names and that profess to teach the "new learning" are springing up everywhere,

and the ignorant multitudes are unable to distinguish between the good and the bad.

3. The Chinese are proud and will rely upon their own efforts to solve their problems. They do not like the idea of charitable interference with their affairs. Besides, they are in a political frame of mind, at present, which leads them to distrust the motives of any attempt to establish schools through foreign effort.

4. The results of sending a large number of Chinese students to foreign countries to be educated have shown some serious disadvantages. These students usually come back out of sympathy with the ignorant masses of their fellow countrymen. They are also inclined to form a caste among themselves from which all not educated abroad, no matter how worthy, are excluded.

5. The Chinese language must be the medium of instruction and the Chinese environment must furnish the applications for the instruction. This means a preparation and modification of text-books and courses of study that require time, training, and a sympathetic appreciation of Chinese needs.

6. Many of the schools that are being maintained and managed by missionary effort, in order to carry out the wishes of their respective denominations, make the Christian religion an important part of the instruction. This, Professor Fryer deems to be a serious mistake both in practice and in principle. "It stands to reason," he says, "that to use secular education as a bait to catch Christian converts is wrong in principle, however successful it may prove in practice for the time being." It is probably true, however, that the Chinese are more deeply interested in ethical teachings than they are in religion and that they are not averse to considering the Christian religion and its practices in an academic way. It is only when their own venerable beliefs are attacked or scoffed at that they take offence. This error zealous Christian teachers and missionaries sometimes make.

The Government of China has, during the past few years, been most energetic in its efforts to establish colleges, in different parts of China, that will provide for the teaching of the special branches which seem to contribute most prominently to the success of Western people. These are colleges of agriculture, of engineering in all its branches, colleges of medicine and of law, and normal colleges for the training of teachers, but especially military and naval schools, where the art of war may be taught. They are also making vigorous efforts to develop industrial and technical schools to which students are invited from the most remote parts of the realm. The industrial school at Tientsin conducts a large salesroom where its various products are on sale. This makes the school almost self-supporting. And these schools promise to become an important factor in the trade-problem of the East.

Efforts are under way, through the generosity of American and European philanthropists, to establish free universities in China after the pattern of our own schools. Professor Fryer regards these efforts as commendable, provided they do not lead to the denationalization of the Chinese or to the neglect of their own language and wealth of literature. However, the Chinese themselves should either establish universities of their own or contribute equally to the efforts made by foreigners. The educational efforts of the Chinese Young Men's Christian Association is particularly to be commended. For example the Shanghai branch is maintaining both day and evening classes in a great variety of practical subjects.

Although the awakening in China is full of promise it must be remembered that a radical changing of the thought and practice of upwards of three hundred millions of the most conservative people in the world, cannot be accomplished in a day. Serious mistakes are too costly to have many of them made; superficial

results will in the end only discourage; and an entire departure from everything Eastern, regardless of whether it is good or bad for the people, may in the long run prove disastrous.

The Dowager Empress of China, before her death, had planned a program of representative government for its people, the first step of which consisted in the establishment of Provincial Assemblies, as a preparation for the establishment of a **National Parliament**. The second step was taken on October 3rd, 1910, when the Imperial Senate was convened in Peking and opened by the Regent Prince Chun. This Imperial Senate is composed of two hundred members. One hundred of these were appointed by the Throne and the other hundred were elected by the various Provincial Assemblies, subject to confirmation by the viceroys of the respective provinces.

Political
Reforms

The third and final step is to be the full National Parliament which is expected to demonstrate the ability of the Chinese in self-government. Prince Chun, in his brief opening address, urged the members of the Senate in their deliberations to keep this end in view, as there is now fair prospect that this parliament may be arranged for earlier than the date fixed upon in the original plan, the year 1915.

There are, however, several serious difficulties in the way of an early realization of an effective self-government in China, which are apt to be overlooked. The most serious is the lack of national unity that exists between Peking, which represents the ruling dynasty, and the other provinces. A second difficulty is the lack of any financial system which is under the control of the central government. Another, is the serious need of effective reform of all Chinese administrative methods; for, with the corruption and graft which are so common among its officials, the whole fabric of government rests upon an exceedingly insecure foundation.

The Dowager Empress was both able and fearless in her statecraft and was, moreover, loyal to the interests of her people. And, if they are honest and courageous in their desires for this additional means of modern progress, undoubtedly the changes that shall be wrought in this hitherto most despotic and conservative realm, will become as much a matter of surprise to foreigners as have been the other lines of phenomenal development.

REPORT OF MELVILLE E. STONE.—Melville E. Stone, Manager of the Associated Press, which has well-informed correspondents in all parts of the world, recently returned from a trip around the world and with very decided opinions upon what is necessary, if the United States is to share in the benefits of the awakening in the East.

He says that the Japanese-Russian War not only taught Orientals that the yellow man behind the gun can kill as well as the white man, but that it has also awakened them, as nothing before, to the possibilities ahead of them. Since the Portsmouth Treaty there have been revolutions in Turkey and Persia and rebellions in China, Ceylon, and India. And besides the war-idea, they have gotten a new sense of the value of sanitation which has greatly lowered the previous frightful mortality, so that other nations shall now have to meet the competition of ever-increasing Eastern hordes.

But further, they are rapidly imbibing ideas of manufacture, and already in China grind their own wheat cheaper than they can get the flour from Minneapolis. India, China, and Japan are manufacturing their own cotton goods. The Chinese are making steel rails for American railways and are landing pig-iron on Puget Sound, in spite of the tariff, for less than it can be made in Pittsburg. Exploiters of capital are watching everywhere in these countries for chances to control sources of supply of raw materials.

But the one thing that China seems most to lack is

men of ample training and influence, to lead the people safely and sanely into the more promising things of the modern world. There are men of sound learning and judgment, but they lack experience. One of the most promising of these is the great leader in most of the progressive movements, Duke K'ung. He is described as a tall, fine-looking man of forty. He is a descendant of the great Confucius and claims an unbroken lineage of 2400 years. If there is any virtue in heredity the Duke's claim to public confidence should be well-founded. But he is only one of a number of thoughtful men who see in the education of the masses, out of their ignorance and away from their superstition, into intelligent, reasonable, self-governing men and women, entire safety from disintegration or the fear of foreign domination.

Cuba

Considerable disappointment at the condition of educational affairs in Cuba has developed during the past year. R. L. Bullard has endeavored to account for these unfavorable conditions in an article, published in the *Educational Review* for April, 1910, as follows:

During the eighteenth century, only the well-to-do in Cuba received an education; the few schools were church schools and all teaching was in charge of the friars or parish priests, just as in Spain during the Middle Ages. The University in Havana was, at the close of that century, practically the only well established educational institution in the island.

At the opening of the nineteenth century, the Spanish Government made an attempt to establish and improve primary education, but the efforts were desultory during two-thirds of the century. About the middle of the century, Captain General Concha, finding these schools unpopular and the teachers poverty-stricken and without standing, endeavored to give them

an impetus by establishing a sort of high school or college, which, being intermediary between them and the university, would give a graded scheme of education. This was a distinct advance. But a long period of revolutions, ending with the final intervention of the United States, interrupted and checked all progress. "Altogether it may be said there never was in Cuba under Spain anything like popular education."

With American intervention came the first real educational awakening, for "Education is with Americans a national hobby." Great appropriations were made, new laws enacted, and new orders put
Education forth. "A complete system, taken from the school laws of the State of Ohio, was established, and under zealous, disinterested American officials, put into effective operation throughout Cuba." Its essential features were: 1. Payment of all costs from the national treasury of the island. 2. Participation of both the people and the government in school matters—the former through local boards and superintendents elected by the people; the latter through the Secretary of Public Instruction (a cabinet officer), a General Educational Commission, a General Superintendent, and six Provincial Superintendents appointed by the general government of the island. 3. Both technical and administrative inspection of the work of the schools was provided for.

The age limit for school attendance was also at once raised from 9 to 14. Normal and summer schools for the training of teachers were established. Text-books were translated from the English and provided free of charge. The high schools and the university were recognized and better equipped. And, finally, the School of Arts and Trades which, although started under Spain, was a mere workshop, was changed into an effective technical school; and special schools and courses, especially in English, were started everywhere.

All of this was received by the Cubans with tremendous enthusiasm; "too much, in fact, as a child with a new toy." Much of the effectiveness of the work at this time was due to the energy and determination of Lieutenant Matthew E. Hanna. At the end of three years when the term of Lieut. Hanna expired, Cuba was able to make a most creditable educational display at the Buffalo exposition.

But "Among Spanish-speaking peoples, education has always been scholastic in character, abstract, theoretical, and unpractical. Its tendency is, therefore, to care for the higher and to neglect the common branches; to fill the universities and to abandon the schools. Being so little practical, it ruled and kept out almost everything in manual, mechanical, industrial, and agricultural training, when in fact these constituted Cuba's greatest need." The main effect of the American intervention, had its influence continued unbroken, would have been to establish a more modern, progressive, practical educational ideal, which would have tended to prepare men for the work of their lives and "not be aimed mainly at public effect."

When the Americans withdrew from Cuba, the new system, being without the assistance and impetus of those who had established it and knew how to conduct it, came into unequal conflict with the old fixed ideas and habits and yielded to their influence point by point "to the extent in a few years of being almost overwhelmed." This was probably to be expected, because the changes had been very sudden and great; the Cubans had little real training in administrative work; the people were at heart monarchic while the system was republican; it proved impossible to adapt the Ohio law to Cuban conditions; the general government in Cuba could render little real assistance, so that local conditions were overwhelming in their influence; it is probable that we gave them "an overdose" of education.

What will be necessary is for Cuba to work over for herself her school system, "better adapting it to the genius, form of government, and stage of advancement of her people." More money will not do it, for Cuba already spends yearly \$4,000,000 on education. The abuse of politics in school matters, now prevalent there, will likely, as in other places, correct itself with experience. But the Cuban's lack of respect for anything deriving its authority from the voice of "just common men" will likely take long years to outgrow.

Add to this the enervating influence of the climate and the almost utter indifference to the physical well-being of the growing child and we can see that the problem is not likely soon to be solved. Fortunately, contrary to what might be expected, the question of religion has never come up in connection with the schools and the color line, despite the mixed population, rarely in any way comes above the surface.

Denmark

There is no illiteracy in Denmark. School attendance is compulsory up to the age of 14. This compulsory period is usually followed by three or four years' work on the farm. Above the elementary schools are the high schools which are private organizations, although practically all of them receive aid from the State. The courses in these schools are of five months' duration; the boys attending in the winter and the girls in the summer. The tuition is small and the students live in the schools. These high schools are very eclectic; there is no necessary uniformity in the courses; and there are no examinations. All of them emphasize the study of history, especially Danish history; literature is taught, as are also book-keeping, business, and everything of

value on the farm. There are forty-two such high schools in the country. They are in a sense patriotic institutions and cannot be compared to American high schools, or to the German gymnasium, as they are wholly an indigenous product.

Closely connected with these high schools are the agricultural colleges, of which there are twenty-nine. They give a very thorough course in all things relating to Danish agriculture. These agricultural colleges are also aided by the State. The boys who attend them are trained in agricultural chemistry, in stockbreeding, in the selection of seeds, and in the management of co-operative establishments, of which there are many in the country.

Denmark is a farmer State; for it has a farmer Parliament, a farmer Ministry, a farmer point of view, and its legislature is largely composed of farmers. And in Denmark the people really rule. They rule in the interest of a larger part of the people A Farmer-State than in any other country unless it be Switzerland. The Danish peasant is a direct antithesis of the English peasant, who wants to be ruled by a lord; for in Denmark the peasant wants to be ruled by a peasant who is like himself in social standing.

The Danish peasant is saturated with the culture of his nation—a culture which has come from the mastery of subjects of study and from an intimate knowledge of the politics of the country. Papers and magazines are universally read. Political and agricultural meetings are almost constantly being held. There are lectures and reading-circle work. Excursions are made to Copenhagen and elsewhere. Co-operative societies publish special text-books for the use of farmers. Universal Culture

England

DEATH OF KING EDWARD.—England's great peace-loving monarch, Edward VII. was laid at rest in the Albert Memorial Chapel at Windsor Castle on May 20, 1910. The funeral services were held in Westminster Hall, to which the body was taken from Buckingham Palace, where he passed away. The funeral cortege was a magnificent display of the power and good will of an empire whose world-wide interests Edward himself had done so much to promote.

A profound sorrow swept round the world as the news of his death was spread—a sorrow that was unmarred by any intentional act of injustice or unkindness during the years of his reign. Not only among the millions of London, but in all parts of the world, on the day of his funeral the roar of traffic and the hurrying hands of industry were stilled for a time, as a mark of respect to the one who had always used his best efforts as a monarch for peace and happiness in the world.

On his coffin, on the day of his burial, was laid a wreath of ivy taken from the tomb of Washington at Mount Vernon. This ivy Edward himself had planted during his visit to this country while he still was only Prince Edward. The wreath was sent as a memorial of the strong bond of sympathy which links two great nations together—in sorrow as well as in joy—a bond which no misunderstanding or selfish interest should ever again be able to break.

The bitter feeling which, earlier in the year, developed between the two Houses of Parliament over the Budget was, through the death of the King, for a time allayed.

The Budget had been vetoed by the House of
 Dispute
 over
 Budget Lords after having been passed by the House
 of Commons. Because of this veto the Govern-
 ment—which in England is represented by the Premier,
 backed by a majority in the Commons—at once denied

the right of the Lords to do this, and threatened to abolish the House of Lords if the veto were not withdrawn.

In this Budget, the Commons had expressed its desire for a progressive tax on incomes; for an inheritance tax arranged progressively up to 25 per cent. of the estate; for taxes on the unearned increment in land values; for taxes on mineral rights apart from the value of the land containing the minerals; and for a duty on tea.

A conference between representatives of the two Houses was arranged for soon after the accession of King George; but this failed of its purpose. Finally, in November, Premier Asquith delivered the ultimatum that, unless the Lords rejected the veto privilege, Parliament would be dissolved and the whole matter be submitted to the people at a general election. Accordingly, as the Lords refused to rescind their veto privileges, Parliament was dissolved on November twenty-eighth, and now (December) the country is in the midst of the excitement of a bitterly contested election.

The whole matter is complicated by the fact that the Irish party has joined hands with the Liberals—the party representing the Government—in the hope of obtaining some advantages for Home Rule for Ireland; and by the additional fact that the Unionists—the opposition party in the Commons that heretofore has stood for a protective tariff—have now set aside the tariff issue and joined in with the Conservatives, the dominating party of the Lords.

The Lords are now proclaiming themselves as desirous of becoming a more nearly democratic body; are advocating the Referendum on all important questions; and are presenting, with a great deal of force, the dangers and probable tyranny of a single legislative body, should the wish of the Government to do away with the House of Lords prevail.

Before the dissolution of Parliament, Lord Curzon made this significant statement in the House of Lords: "We want to place this chamber on a democratic basis."

Social
Revolution And Lord Roseberry has frequently insisted that it was the intention of the Lords to make important changes in their own procedure and, hence, there was no necessity for submitting their action to the people and to the exciting issues of an election.

Whatever may occur, the items of the Budget indicate clearly that legislation is to be in favor of the masses—the Budget being merely a fiscal expression of the social revolution which is developing so rapidly in England.

The exact nature of this social revolution is not easy for an American to comprehend. "The social temper of the Englishman is not easy to understand. It is difficult to believe that he is in the deadly earnest he really is, because he does not do the things that we in his place would do, if we were in earnest. He won't allow the Lords to veto a House of Commons bill, but we shall find that he has not the slightest intention of abolishing the House of Lords. The Englishman hates the privileges of aristocracy and he means to take them away, but he has more than a sneaking fondness for the aristocrat. He is a socialist—the whole British people are socialists at heart—but he is not a democrat." (Editor of *World's Work*—March, 1910.) Hence, the House of Lords instead of being abolished may eventually be strengthened as a result of the struggle going on between it and the House of Commons. And this in spite of David Lloyd-George's battle cry, "A duke costs as much as a dreadnought and is far more dangerous."

EDUCATIONAL TENDENCIES.—In regard to education in England, Professor Michael E. Sadler in a recent address before the Fulham Educational Council said that there are three tendencies:

1. The first flows toward realism. This drift is partly due to the influence of physical science, partly

to a reaction against the bookish traditions inherited from the Revival of learning.

This realism manifests itself in an increased use of the laboratory in science teaching, and in the more objective methods that are being employed in the teaching of the classics and mediæval history. Its influence is even more marked in the way in which the life of the school community and the personality of the teacher are being used, with distinct ethical force, upon the half-conscious minds of pupils. It is popularizing the coeducation of boys and girls during adolescence, even in ^{Coeducation} boarding-schools that are under wise supervision and where due regard is paid to the differing needs of the two sexes in regard to the choice and intensity of studies. It is also producing a ferment as to the true limits of religious teaching in the schools.

2. A second current sets towards democracy. Democracy on its older and more individual side favored the idea of the social ladder. But, on its more recent and group side, it doubts the value of competition, and is skeptical about helping the clever to rise into a new group possessing greater privileges than those of the group in which they were born. The watch-word of this more recent idea is "Don't be a traitor to your class; use all the education you can get in serving those among whom you were born."

3. A third current is anti-governmental. This is the result of a reaction against bureaucracy, especially of the kind that prescribes more governmental control for every new social ill. The anti-governmentalist thirsts for real freedom and wants to go his own road, even if it is to his own hurt. The governmentalist asks for a model State, scientifically governed; the anti-governmentalist is restive under such a paternal rule.

Probably the best evidence of this anti-governmental feeling is the uneasiness of teachers, in both France and England, under bureaucratic control. It is also clearly

manifested in England by the way in which parents are insisting upon the right to determine what their children shall be taught, regardless of what the wisdom of some public authority has determined is best. "Much of the stimulus towards anti-governmentalism is derived from Tolstoi, the Rousseau of our age."

The writer of an article which appeared in a recent issue of the *London Times* takes a very hopeful view of the educational outlook in England. He says there are two things which clearly indicate a change that is occurring in English educational thought. One is the stronger sense of the responsibility of the State for the proper training of its future citizens; the other is the equally strong sense of the need of individuality in that training, as well as for a recognition of the educational desires and opinions of parents.

Matthew Arnold was a great preacher of the value and supremacy of the State. Robert Lowe and Auberon Herbert were preachers of individualism. But the English conservatism kept the people from entirely accepting either doctrine. A compromise idea resulted, in which an effort has been made to have a scientifically administered State with a sufficiently large place in it for individual variety and parental choice. But the latter is clearly indicating its supreme necessity; and is giving thoughtful men, especially the law-makers, serious problems to work out for the proper relating of English education to the national life.

As this problem is touching all classes of schools, even the universities, a great many serious questions are arising. Among these are, what are the proper functions of the State, of the family, and of the individual (whether acting alone or with a group who are of like mind) in relation to the forms of training which are most appropriate to modern needs? Safety lies in dealing with these issues not simply in a sectional way but as a large problem of public policy. During the last quarter of a

century the middle-class, from which the great "public schools" are mainly recruited, have shirked these questions. This has resulted in a detachment of public school life from municipal interests and municipal duty and, as Sir Arthur Hort said in the Moral Education Congress, in impairing the training given for practical citizenship.

Many believe that these great public schools should no longer be isolated from the State administration, and that even the private schools which prepare for them should be under State inspection. The same is true of the universities, many of which have already come under State inspection in order to secure grants from the Treasury. But it is not desired in England that the universities come absolutely under State control as in Germany, where it is claimed the bureaucratic management leads to intrigue, petty personalities, and political prejudice.

The problem of character-forming influences in the State-aided elementary schools is being solved by certain forms of moral and civic instruction that are obligatory. Closely connected with this Moral and
Civic question of character-forming is the future of the training colleges for the professional preparation of teachers. Two choices are before the leaders. One is to have training schools each of which is to be closely connected with a religious denomination; the other is to have purely secular training schools. If only the public elementary schools were concerned, secular training colleges would probably be the more desirable. But it would be very difficult to secularize all of the training colleges.

It is clear that the State must no longer permit impoverished inefficiency at the expense of child-life. No schools must be permitted to lie beyond the range of public aid nor be exempt from the standards demanded by public inspection. To accomplish this: (a) uniform-

ity of moral and religious teaching must be insisted upon; or (b) there must be the uniformity of secularism; or (c) the variety of schools and training colleges now in existence must be recognized as a necessity. To the first of these three propositions, present English life would not yield. The second has American precedent behind it, but the writer fears that secularism would not prove the way of peace in England. Hence, on the whole, Professor Sadler favors the plan of giving recognition to varieties of parental conviction with a recognition at the same time of the supreme responsibility of the State.

English educators regard the strong industrial trend of the American schools as a dangerous tendency towards mere industrialism. The peculiar organization of their various school systems and the tremendous influence of the traditions of their long-established schools for boys have, up to this time, prevented specific trade instruction from gaining a strong foothold in their general educational scheme. Hence, there is little danger that in England the industrialists shall have an overdue influence in vocational education. Culture still has a predominating attraction for them, and, probably, at no time in the near future will the work for culture be degraded for the sake of getting time for training for specific occupations. For the English the kind of instruction that has for its ultimate object taste and accomplishment is still a prime necessity.

And yet, there is a growing feeling in England that their educational ideals are not meeting the real needs of the people—that it is demanding the time and opportunity of boys who shall have to find their place in business and in the shops, for mere grammatical drudgery; that it is not giving the girls the instruction and practice in housekeeping that they need; and that it is not training for citizenship of the kind that is of especial value at the beginning of a career.

That the two ideas, culture and efficiency, can be and will be in the end harmoniously united is as probable with them as with us. With us the union should work out sooner, because of the absence of a hereditary leisure class which is predominantly interested in culture. But there is a rapidly developing feeling in England, even among the more thoughtful of this class, that every boy must have a fair chance to become all he may become and that, to accomplish this, both the curriculum and the method of the schools may have to be modified. Probably the best indication of the breaking up of conservative ideas in education, is the growing neglect of the competitive prizes and scholarships that once meant so much to all Englishmen.

RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS.—Interest in the Rhodes Scholarships continues. Clarence H. Haring of Philadelphia, who is a Harvard graduate and who recently returned to his native city after studying for three years at Oxford on a Rhodes scholarship, is quoted as saying, "The best I can say for the English university system is that it develops the social side. A man has every opportunity to associate with the finest scholars and acquire a culture hardly attainable in America. It is difficult to mention any further use for a Rhodes scholarship to any graduate of a first-class Eastern college. Although in English colleges the professors and students come into closer personal contact, I believe the American educational methods to be far in advance of those employed there. The ideal college would be run by a combination of the two systems, I think."

THE MORAL EDUCATIONAL LEAGUE.—This League, which has so rapidly been extending its influence in Great Britain, has now reached out to include India within the sphere of its efforts. The Moral Ed. League has prepared a book of moral lessons that it is hoped will be found especially adapted to the needs of the Indian schools. The last annual report

gives as the reason for this latest effort: "We were prompted to undertake this work through the action in November of last year by the native State of Mysore in introducing Religious and Moral Instruction into its Government Schools. An abundant correspondence with Indians of diverse faith has made more and more clear to us how deeply felt is this need in that country, where a purely secular system of education is in force in the State schools."

SCOTLAND.—TRAINING OF TEACHERS.—The scheme of teacher-training adopted in Scotland in 1905, to strengthen the general character of the teaching, has recently undergone important changes. At that time the Educational Department divided the province of Scotland into four parts, each part being as nearly contiguous as possible to a university. It also

Training of Teachers established provincial committees on the training of teachers for each district. Each committee uses the university of its area as its headquarters. Each of these committees has power to provide suitable courses of instruction for the training of teachers. For this purpose it may establish university classes and use any of such other educational agencies as the technical schools, the secondary schools, the centers of art training, or the public schools, for practice purposes. Denominational schools may continue to train their own teachers, but, in return for financial aid, are subject to inspection and must meet all of the prescribed conditions for teachers' certificates.

The composition of these provincial committees presents an interesting feature to Americans, for it is so arranged that they shall represent all of the educational interests of the province—representatives from the universities, from the technical and secondary schools, from the layman, and from the general body of educational workers. The chief inspector of schools is an advisory member. That there may be some one responsible per-

son to formulate and execute plans, each committee has a director of studies who corresponds fairly well with our superintendents and who serves as the committee's expert on the training of teachers.

Scotland is both progressive and democratic in its educational scheme; hence, a large amount of freedom and power has been conferred upon all local administrations. This gives considerable variation for a system that is under such a highly centralized control. And yet it gives an opportunity for the expressing of local needs and local sentiments and, because of prevailing public sentiment, for a very effective educational administration. This being true, it is only natural that an effort should be made to secure uniformly good results, and that this joint committee of the provincial committees should have been formed.

There are two stages in the training of a teacher in Scotland. During the first stage, he is a student in a secondary school, where the professional training for those who contemplate teaching begins. Here he is known as a junior student; which he may become only after he is fifteen years of age and has obtained what is known as the intermediate certificate by completing the first stage of his secondary education. A satisfactory medical certificate as to health and physical fitness, must at this time be furnished. There must also be a report from the principal teacher which is specific in regard to the qualities which indicate the applicant's probable ultimate fitness for teaching. To assist in determining these qualities, the applicant may be employed, during the three months preceding the report, in giving instruction under supervision in the lower primary classes. It should be added incidentally that school authorities have recently been empowered to pay transportation and even maintenance charges for students sent in to central institutions to complete their secondary education.

Two Stages
of Training

The junior student covers both professional and culture work in his training. The course is normally three years but may be covered in two. Substantially one-third of the time is given to professional work, such as practice teaching, study of methods, and the further study of manual work, music, etc. The remainder of the time is devoted to the cultural work, in which there is considerable range of election. However, as students are inclined to overcrowd their programmes, there are likely soon to be some limitations set to their freedom in this respect.

When the junior course is satisfactorily completed, certificates are issued on the recommendation of the instructors and without an examination, and the prospective teachers come, as senior students, under the direct control of one of the four provincial committees. They now either enter the training colleges which are under denominational control, or enter training schools which are in charge of local committees. The large majority of these teachers are preparing for primary work and will take only a two-year course. Many of the junior students, however, take advantage of their privilege of passing an examination at the end of their course and entering a university teacher's training class.

These classes were established as early as 1834 in the three great university towns, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen, during the period of strenuous rivalry between the church of Scotland and the Free Church and at the time when education was exclusively under the control of the churches. Later the Episcopalians and the Catholics also established such training classes; the former in connection with the university at Edinburgh, the latter with the university at Glasgow. The class association of these students in the universities has done much to foster a spirit of culture among teachers, and the traditions, especially in the smaller communities, have always been in favor of teachers with university training.

The senior students who do not attend university classes take such professional subjects as hygiene and physical training, psychology, logic and ethics, principles of education, and methods and practice, with a continuation of the cultural studies of the secondary schools from which upon satisfactory records some exemption may be made. They are also expected to do some work along a special line of physical education, industrial training, art course, etc.

Those who take part of their work in a university, a technical college, or a school of art, are also obliged to take the above professional work with the addition of singing, drawing, etc., according to the nature of the school in which the supplementary work is done. Students who distinguish themselves in this work have the privilege of a third or even a fourth year for their training.

The practice teaching of the senior students is done in the public school. For this purpose the provincial committees have the legal right of entrance into any State-assisted school, although they may have to reimburse the school system for each student entered. The practicing teachers are under the immediate direction and control of the head of the school to which they may be assigned for instruction. He usually places the candidate to observe, assist, or take charge of a class in a particular room, whose regular teacher is expected to report upon the ability manifested.

Practice
Teaching

In course of the two years' training, the senior student works in a number of schools, and under a variety of conditions. This assures a very practical training for the student teacher, and the Scotch Education Department seems committed to the plan of utilizing on an extensive scale the schools of the neighborhood for such practice work. This may eventually lead to the college training schools becoming more nearly experimental or demonstrational schools.

The work in methods is directed by a General Master of Method, although there is a strong tendency to make the lecturer in any special subject responsible for the methods pursued in that subject, so as to compel a close practical relation between method and practice.

Secondary teachers are divided into two groups in Scotland: (a) Teachers of higher subjects and (b) Teachers of special subjects. Candidates for the first group must now, after obtaining a degree at a university, submit themselves to the provincial committee for a year of professional training, which is similar to that given the teachers preparing for primary work. But they take in addition a course on present-day problems of education, and a course in the history of education, as well as in its principles.

While the universities have no direct connection with the Education Department, it will thus be seen that all professional training of teachers comes under the control of this department through its provincial committees. A second feature of strength of the Scotch plan lies in this insistence upon professional training for secondary as well as primary teachers. Because differentiation in the preparation of each is deferred until the third year of training, there is practically no evidence of a gap, either in methods or in esteem, between secondary and primary teaching in Scotland, as it unfortunately exists in America. The fact that many teachers in the primary schools have done either all or part of the university work helps to foster this spirit of unity of interests.

It is evident from the above that Scotland is endeavoring to secure a teaching force which shall combine both culture and special professional preparation. To secure this they are centralizing the control of the training and are using every available agency for the work. To foster the traditional culture of the country, every encouragement is given to induce teacher students to take at least

some university work. Whether this contact with the existing culture of the universities will prove of more value than would a more intimate knowledge of the every-day life problems of the community in which the teacher is to work, is doubtful. But the desire for the highest possible training along any line is a worthy one, and the universities may soon so modify their courses as better to meet modern conditions.

The cost of this efficient training is great and the expense of paying a high-grade teaching force will become constantly greater. In Scotland, however, the expense of training teachers, as well as a large part of the general educational expense, is borne by Imperial grants; and Great Britain is realizing, as never before, that its success in the great industrial competition lies in developing ability of a high order, and that the best place for accomplishing this is in the schools. "Hence it would appear that there is a growing appreciation of that which ought to be a fact, namely, that the cost of education is a form of social investment and that if the investment is wisely made it will produce an abundant return."

France

CELEBRATION OF THE THIRD REPUBLIC. — On the fourth of September, 1910, France celebrated the fortieth anniversary of the establishment of the Third Republic. There is much for which this Third Republic has good reason to be proud. At the time of its birth, in 1870, it faced problems which few governments have had to solve. The humiliations and enormous burdens imposed by the defeat in the war with Germany; the disintegrating influences of a century of political unrest and revolution; and the fact that the new government was in reality only an organized effort for national defense and, therefore, open to the opposition of all who were opposed to great centralization of power—

all these things made the task of establishing governmental stability a difficult one.

However, the Third Republic is an adaptable government, and, under the admirable leadership of Jules Ferry, combined with the exceptional recuperative power and frugality of the common people, an effective order of things was established. These results culminated in 1882, in the establishment of education for all the people. As this was made both universal and compulsory, and has always met with the full support and encouragement of the people, it has shown much of its tremendous power in the nation. The many economical reforms undertaken by the Republic have furthered the development of a nation already frugal and thrifty, and have made the French people the largest owners of government securities of any people in the world. There are also proportionately more individual owners of farms than in any other nation.

But especially pleasing to all friends of peace has been the gradual drawing together of France and Great Britain—hereditary enemies from the earliest days. This has been partly due to the growing importance of France as a world-power, but more largely to the wisdom that has of late years been shown in the management of its foreign affairs. Altogether the Republic has been a decided success and its people have reason to rejoice in opportunities such as are possessed by few other countries. That every boy in France has a splendid chance has no more forcible illustration anywhere than was afforded by two of its most successful Presidents, Loubet and Falliere, both of whom climbed from humble origin to the Presidency of the Republic.

CHILD-STUDY MOVEMENT. — *Education* for March calls attention to a chronological review of the child-study movement which was made by the Director of the Normal School of Sucre, Bolivia, and published in Dr. Compayre's educational journal.

One of the most important centres of child investigation referred to in this review is the psychological laboratory connected with the Sorbonne, Paris. The systematic study of imbeciles that has been carried on in this laboratory has yielded results of the greatest importance, not merely to these afflicted people, but it has proved most suggestive even in dealing with normal children.

An exceedingly important outgrowth of this and other child-study is the present rapidly extending movement for promoting the health of school children. It has also materially assisted towards stirring up interest in the wider problems of community and state hygiene.

France has indicated its interest in the plan of exchanging professors with our prominent universities by sending, for this year, M. Emile Boutroux to become the Hyde lecturer at Harvard. Mr. ^{Exchange of Professors} Boutroux is one of the most eminent philosophers of our time. He is an able champion of the freedom of the will as opposed to determinism and is an advocate of the higher spiritualism as against gross materialism.

He is President of the Foundation Thiers. This was established by the great creator of the Third Republic, who became noted both as a scholar and a statesman, although it was by such a hard road that he determined to found an institution which could ^{Foundation Thiers} help deserving but needy young men in continuing their studies. The Foundation is especially devoted to original research work. Although it provides for only fifteen pensioners at one time, each remaining for three years, it has during the twenty years of its existence done remarkable work. The building in which it is housed stands in its own private park near the Bois de Boulogne.

The systematic investigation of commercial education as it is carried on in the principal countries of Europe,

which was made in behalf of the higher education in France, has led to the conclusion that the French schools are inferior to Germany's in this respect. The Government has been especially interested in this branch of education because of its value to the diplomatic and consular service. The Minister of Foreign Affairs has, since the report of the investigation was made public, taken measures to recruit the diplomatic and consular service only from men who are thoroughly trained in commercial science.

The number of births is diminishing so rapidly in France that the Government has become alarmed. The census returns show that there has been an increase in population of but three millions since 1851. To show the seriousness of the alarm, during the present summer, a bill was introduced by the Government to stimulate marriage by: Imposing additional military service upon bachelors over twenty-nine years of age; making obligatory the marriage of State employees who have reached the age of twenty-five, and by allowing supplementary pensions for those having a family of more than three children; and by repealing the law requiring the equal distribution of estates among children. The dislike of the average Frenchman to have a division of his property has, according to those who have made a study of the subject, been a frequent cause of restricted families.

The International Dentists' Federation met in Paris in March, 1910. One of the memorable things done by the Federation was to inaugurate a movement for the erection of a monument to the American dentist Horace Wells. This action of the Federation was a pronounced recognition of his claims to the discovery of anæsthesia, especially in its applications to the necessarily pain-wracking work of the dentist.

Germany

REFORM MOVEMENT IN RELIGIOUS TEACHING.—One of the recent bulletins of the United States Bureau of Education is a monograph written by Professor Arley B. Shaw, of Leland Stanford Junior University, upon the reform movement in regard to the teaching of religion in the public schools of Saxony.

This demand for reform in the religious teaching (Religion-unterricht) he indicates is both widespread and insistent. The general feeling seems to be that religious instruction has not kept pace, either in spirit or in practice, with the progress along other lines of teaching nor with the evolution in science and religious sentiment. The provisions of this instruction which are arousing most serious dissatisfaction are the ones which call for clerical supervision for the schools and for confessional instruction.

As there is an established alliance between the Church and the State in Germany, the protests are met by the leaders of the National Church with the reply that such oversight and instruction, at least for the work in the *Shorter Catechism*, is necessary as a part of the training in good citizenship. To this the teachers, who in Saxony especially are most united in their protests, reply that such provisions are a restriction upon pedagogical freedom and a decided hindrance to the natural development of the child.

As much of the religious instruction in Germany, both in organization and in method, has been in use since the Reformation, it seems strange to us that in the country which has been most fertile in both intellectual and religious research, as well as in pedagogical evolution, there should have been so little change in this one respect. It must not be imagined, however, that in the reforms suggested there is any thought of abandoning religious instruction in the schools. Such an idea would be en-

tirely repugnant to the German mind. That there has been comparatively little public discussion provoked by the practical separation of Church and State proposed seems strange to Americans with their direct and continuous interest in their government.

Because of our deep and growing interest in the moral phase of education we will find profit in a careful study of this whole movement. Upon this feature of its importance Professor Shaw says, "In a time when
Moral Training our own educational thought is beginning to take more serious concern for the demands of moral training in the schools, we have much to learn from the comprehensive ideals of our German neighbors. These educational ideals embrace two generally accepted principles; namely, that religion is an essential part of the curriculum and that the religious material and method of its use must both be adapted to the child mind. A third principle which is becoming clearly formulated is that the teaching of religion must not be by dogma but by making the mind of Jesus live in the children."

In order to give practical form to their protests, the reformers have prepared a book to serve as a guide in the new forms of religious instruction. It contains selections
Outline for Religious Teaching from the Gospels, from the Psalms, and from German literature. It was prepared for the purpose of bringing "before the child the best products of religious experience within the range of his comprehension." The divisions of material within the book are suggestive—Childhood and home; Home and Fatherland; in God's beautiful world; Holidays and festivals; Duty to men; Diligence and joy in Labor; Seed-time and harvest; Life and death; Upward to God.

In view of the somewhat widespread opinion that there is a growing spirit of irreligion prevalent in Germany—an opinion fostered, no doubt, by what we hear of the research work of its many noted scientists and by

the number of its higher critics and agnostics—it is well to note what Prof. Shaw says about the debate not resting on the “attitude towards religion itself” but only upon a difference in regard to the way in which it should be taught. The leading reformers, as well as their opponents, adhere to the great fundamentals of Christian truth; but the former claim that these must be seen “through the eyes of the men of to-day” and not through the eyes of the men of Reformation days. The opposition maintains that “since Christianity is organized into confessions, *Religion-unterricht* must necessarily take the confessional form;” and that it should be under the direct control of the clergy is evident, when the historical development of Germany as a Christian State is kept in mind.

Professor Shaw says that the movement is being conducted without vituperation and with an evident desire on the part of all concerned to coöperate. This is greatly to the credit of the German people. Religious and pedagogical discussions are not always so calmly carried on. The outcome is awaited with interest.

GENERAL TOPICS.—Interest in the health of school children as well as in community and state hygiene, will undoubtedly be greatly promoted by the International Hygiene Exhibition which is to be held in Dresden during the present year (1911). In the official announcement it is stated “Hygiene has become to-day of capital importance to our whole life, and it is clear beyond every doubt that it is destined to enjoy a future surpassing all expectations. Although the last century, through the exceptional developments of human activity, has brought external culture and its technical appliances to a height never before attained, inner culture on the other hand, the care of man himself, has made no advancement.” There is now a reaction against this and “Man longs for an intensified feeling of good health, and demands hygienic instruction.”

International
Hygiene
Exhibit

Germany provides three kinds of institutions for children below the compulsory school-age. The first of these is presided over by a nursery maid (*kinderpflegerin*) and is for children under three years of age, although older children are sometimes admitted. The second receives children between the ages of two and a half and six. Although it is often conducted quite similarly to a kindergarten, its purpose is social, as it is mainly for children whose mothers are at work. The primary object of the third institution, the kindergarten, is, of course, educational—education according to the Froebelian principle. For this purpose it holds its sessions for a couple of hours morning and afternoon.

There is a tendency to make no distinction between the kindergarten and the second named institution (the *bewahrenstall*), although where there is a distinction the richer children naturally attend the kindergarten and the poorer the *bewahrenstall*.

All of these German institutions are private and if nominally free are maintained by private generosity. City governments are, however, beginning to take them under their own control.

A society which has for its express purpose the restriction of the publication and sale of “detective” and “penny-dreadful” literature has recently been organized in Germany. This effort is the result of the demoralizing influence of such publications upon the minds of the young, especially their suggestiveness in the way of crime and lawlessness to the thought of the young boy. The feeling is growing that even if this class of literature may not prove a direct incitement to evil, it at least prevents a taste for more worthy, though less exciting, reading. Hence this organized effort, which has already secured promises of assistance from a number of large publishing and book-selling houses.

Kinds of
Institutions

Reading
for Boys
and Girls

The German people, through their scholarly and energetic Emperor, have set their seal of approval upon the solicitation and giving of private assistance to great educational movements. Early in October there was a generous donation of gifts amounting to two and a half millions of dollars for the establishment of an institution of scientific research to be connected with the University of Berlin. The Emperor, no doubt, was stimulated in his interest and activity by the large donations which, of late years, have so greatly assisted our own scientific and general educational progress.

A Committee of German scholars appointed to investigate the question of simplified spelling made a recommendation that the *h* after *t* be dropped from several thousand words and that *f* should be substituted for *ph* in many other words.

Simplified
Spelling

This simplification does not affect the spoken language, but makes the writing and spelling of German easier. As Germany has a State system of education and the change has the authority of the Emperor back of it, simplified spelling is already an accomplished fact in that country.

POINTS OF SUPERIORITY OF THE GERMAN SCHOOLS.—

On account of the wide-spread interest in the German Schools, it may be of value to give the substance of a paper read before a conference of Masters in church schools some months ago by Edward Spanhoofd of St. Paul's School, Concord, N. H. In this paper, Professor Spanhoofd gave what he regarded as some of the main causes of the superiority of German schools. His statements are well worth careful consideration and are in substance as follows:

Superiority
of German
Schools

1. The large school-room in which the American boy studies furnishes opportunity for introducing disturbing elements that make concentration of mind difficult; and as he is apt to regard his own room as a place for loafing and entertaining his friends, he thus comes to have no place for real hard study. (Prof. Spanhoofd is

speaking of "boarding schools," but the general principle of having a proper place to study is important.)

2. Our plan of having a preparation period precede each recitation period is pedagogically bad, because a lesson learned only for an hour cannot stick in a boy's mind. Besides, the two coming close together demand concentration of attention upon one subject longer than it can be maintained.

3. The curriculum of the German Schools leads naturally towards a higher scholarship:—

(a) Languages are begun earlier in the school-life; *i.e.*, in a Gymnasium, Latin begins at 9, which is the age of admittance to the secondary schools, French at 12, and Greek at 13; in a Realschule, French or English at 9 and the other modern languages at 12—these being regarded as the ages best adapted for the study of languages. They also begin with frequent lessons on the theory that repetition at short intervals is favorable to remembering.

(b) The natural sciences are taught throughout the whole school-course.

(c) History and geography, generally coupled together, are taught throughout the whole course.

(d) The teaching of the mother tongue is based upon the idea that German is to be the center of all the instruction. On this principle, whenever possible, especially in the secondary school, every instructor teaches the vernacular in addition to his other subject or subjects. Great importance is attached to German composition and themes and to the memorizing of German poems. The reading books are compiled in accordance with the dictum, "The vernacular is the center of all instruction."

4. Marks and examinations are practically unknown in Germany. Our marking system changes the teacher, to a great extent, into an examiner and this leads the pupil to set a higher value upon *marks* than upon *knowledge*. It is to the credit of the German educators

that they have always recognized the idealism of boy nature and that there is therefore no need to base his acquisition of a liberal education upon the gain of anything material, whether it be mark, money, or position.

Examinations are given; but only when a given subject is completed, and for the purpose of deciding whether the work has been sufficiently well done to make it safe to proceed to something else. The inevitable result of our system of examinations is cramming and even our best teachers yield to the temptation, as the examination time approaches, to stop real teaching and to confine themselves to the drill that will show best results in the examination. There is only one examination worthy of the name which the German boy has to pass and that is the *Maturitäts-examin* which admits him to the university. The teacher's judgment is final at all other points.

5. The instructor who teaches the most important subjects of a class or division is appointed its *ordinarius* or *klassenlehrer*, i.e., the master in charge of the class. It is his duty to make himself thoroughly acquainted with every boy in his class, in his home-life, as well as in his school-life. To him therefore the boy may turn in any difficulty of his moral, intellectual, or physical life. The *ordinarius* plans the entire work of the class and inspects the work of the other teachers of the class to see that it is properly done. The class-book, which each teacher is obliged to keep and in which is noted the school-history of each boy as well as the subjects of recitation and of study for each day, furnishes him much valuable information and helps to insure thoroughness.

Professor Spanhoofd regards this plan as superior to our departmental teaching, of which he says: "Our system of departmental teaching is apt to lower the standard and efficiency in one subject by just as much as it has been raised in another by the superior energy and persistency of the man teaching it."

6. Sports do not play such an all-absorbing part in the school-life of the German boy, although they are not absent from it. For recreation he plays ball, tramps through the woods and over the fields, and engages in rowing and swimming, but owing to his 28 to 33 recitations per week, he has no energy left for making *work* of his games and sports, as is the case with the American boy.

7. The greater length of the German school-year is favorable to a more thorough scholarship. The German boy gets only 12 weeks of vacation as against the 20 weeks given in many American schools. This during a gymnasium course of 9 years amounts to a distinct gain of 72 weeks.

Professor Spanhoofd admits that if the American boy takes a four-year's college course, and makes good use of all that its opportunities offer, before entering a university, he should outrank the German boy, who enters the university directly upon completing the gymnasium or real-schule course. Yet he claims that the German boy enters (at the age of 19) upon his professional work at the university before the spirit and desire of research has been dulled and without the reluctance and indifference towards the liberal studies that is manifest among American college graduates.

The National Association of State Universities, at its meetings in Washington in November, 1908, after careful consideration, reported that in their opinion "present tendencies point to a definite differentiation in the work of the college at the close of the sophomore year toward university work in the real sense."

Should this idea be generally adopted, youths of the two countries would then be about on a par in time-opportunity at the period when university work would begin. President Jordan of Stanford University endorses this plan and suggests that the work of the first two college-years be called the Junior College. Some recommend that this work be taken over by our high schools;

in which case, American boys would be admitted directly from the secondary school to the university just as in Germany.

In conclusion, Professor Spanhoofd recommends that instead of enriching our courses of study from the top downward, as we have been doing, we begin to enrich them from the bottom upward. By beginning this enrichment at the age of 9 as in Germany, we could, during the following 9 years, which reach to the end of the high-school course, go far beyond what the colleges require for admittance and "equip a boy with the liberal education which fits him for college (or the university under the new plan), incidentally, but principally for life and its various duties."

Professor Spanhoofd's article was published in the *Educational Review* for June, 1910.

PRUSSIA—SUFFRAGE. — The Prussian Parliament, upon the initiative of the German Emperor, who is also King of Prussia, has passed an electoral bill which materially modifies its archaic forms of suffrage.

Whereas membership in the lower house of the Political Imperial German Parliament rests upon a "one man, one vote" idea, membership in the Prussian Parliament rests upon wealth. The Electors heretofore were divided into three classes, according to the amounts of taxes paid. The first class consisted of those who paid the highest taxes to the amount of one-third of the whole tax. The second class of those who pay the next highest taxes to the limit of one-third of the whole. The third class consists of the remainder of the voters. These higher classes consist of relatively few people, and yet their voting power greatly outranked that of the mass of people comprising the third class. The reform consists in establishing a limit beyond which wealth shall be of no advantage in voting power and in placing certain office-holders and professional men in a class beyond that to which their taxes would entitle them.

This is interesting in the light of the respect of the German for the professional man and because of the growth of the political equality which is going on so universally.

Germany continues to manifest her interest in an interchange of educational ideas with America. Dr. Hugo

Exchange of Professors Münsterburg of Harvard is our exchange professor for this year. Their interest in the exchange of ideas for Secondary education also continues. Late in 1910, Dr. George Kerschensteiner, who has been at the head and front of the developments in industrial education in Munich, attended the general conference on this pressing subject, which was held in Boston in November. As Germany is the recognized leader in this phase of education, the words of Dr. Kerschensteiner are of especial interest and import. The main ideas conveyed in his several addresses will be found in the account of the Boston meeting.

An ornithological congress was held in Berlin beginning May 30, 1910. A plan for uniform methods of

Ornithological Congress protecting birds throughout the world was submitted to this congress by The National

Association of Audubon Societies. There has been such a wholesale slaughter of the migratory birds in the United States, Canada, and Mexico, that the members of this association entered into an agreement to concentrate their efforts on protecting these birds in at least these three countries.

This is the work that is going on throughout the German Empire and indicates the radical change that has occurred among its people. In the past, the Germans

Summary were always regarded as one of the most romantic and sentimental races. From this sentiment and romance they had a rude awakening under the scourging of Napoleon. The results of these changes were first fully realized by the world in the Franco-Prussian War. Since 1870, the Germans have

been amongst the most practical of all people in all departments of their varied activities. While they have lost none of their old-time enthusiasm, it is now under a disciplined control known in but few great countries.

Japan

Ex-President Roosevelt, in his recent address before the University of Berlin on the subject of a World Movement, referred to Japan as the most extraordinary instance of a people who have been profoundly affected and radically changed, not, as has usually been the case, through conquest, but through mere impact with Western civilization. He said that he regards the changes in Japan as the most striking phenomenon of all history, because of the way in which the people have wrenched themselves free from all hampering ties and with a bound taken their place among the leading civilized nations.

The several characteristics of the Japanese people that have most contributed to this phenomenal rise have been: 1. Their industriousness. Japan resembles Holland in the commonness of labor and the diligence of the laborer. Until within the last few years, there has been no leisure-class in Japan. This habit of work has kept the people vigorous and given them endurance.

Characteristics of Japanese

2. As a people, they practice self-restraint. Although in some respects Western nations would regard them as immoral, they are not given to excesses that undermine the health or weaken the physical force.

3. The racial purity of the people has fostered good personal habits and helpful family customs. It has also served to develop the unity of interests and purposes which are so effective in any great national effort.

4. Buddhism, which has been the State religion, has contributed to simplicity of life and to fearlessness in death. The essence of Buddhism is to put one's self

into harmony with the Absolute in time and space. This can be done only by a complete yielding of the thought, the feeling, and the will, to the Eternal in time and the Infinite in space.

Then too, in Japan, the highest respect has always been paid to the scholar. This places knowledge high among the desirable things of life. In Japan, heretofore, the merchant or the man of business has belonged to the lowest social class, being outranked by both the farmer and the mechanic; and all of them have been socially outranked by the scholar. This has kept down the overweening influence of wealth and has made merit dependent upon the higher qualities which promote enduring success.

Besides, nowhere does the teaching of ethics receive more attention. From the primary school to the university nothing is more persistently taught than right living. The ethics of Confucius have for centuries been the basis of this instruction; and Confucianism is full of precept in regard to learning and obeying, and it also teaches decorum, uprightness, and benevolence.

And the interest in education is general and intense. As early as 1872, the Emperor of Japan proclaimed: "It is designed henceforth that education shall be so diffused that there may not be a village with an ignorant family, nor a family with an ignorant member." This was followed, in 1890, by "The Imperial Rescript on Education," which was in reality a rescript concerning the ethical virtues. "In virtue," the Emperor said, "lies the source of our education as well as the glory of the fundamental character of the Empire."

The Emperor has continually and in every possible way shown his interest in education. As an indication of the general interest in education it may be sufficient to state, that while in America not over 70 per cent. of the children of legal school age (usually 6 to 18) are in school, Japan reports 95 per cent. as in attendance at school.

Liberia

The Commission appointed in 1909 to visit and examine into the condition of Liberia, the African republic which was formed under the encouragement of the United States, made its report during the past year. This report clearly shows that Liberia is neither bankrupt nor rent by internal turbulence, as was claimed by several of the foreign consuls. Report of
Commission

The Commission further reports that, with assistance from the United States which the Republic of Liberia expects because of our interest in establishing the colony, its future is full of hope and promise. "The debt is not larger than that of many other small countries; the customs revenue is collected; the police is in good condition; the judiciary is honest, although not notably learned; and there is some effort to impart education, although much is needed in this regard."

Within the last ten years, the French have seized a strip of land of considerable size because of the claim that Liberia had not "effectively occupied it." The difficulty with Great Britain, which recently occurred, was only with a British officer who acted in a way which his own government promptly discredited and he has since been removed.

The Commission strongly recommends the encouragement and assistance of the United States for this republic, which is the home of the descendants of many colored people who were encouraged to emigrate to it from our shores at the time of its establishment in the year 1816.

Mexico

Mexico, in celebration of the hundredth year of her independence, held a brilliant historical pageant in the City of Mexico on September 15th. The pageant represented the various historical stages in the development

of the country from the Aztec period, through the Spanish Conquest by Cortez, the establishment of the Federal Republic, the period of the French invasion, and the more familiar happenings of the last half century, down to the developments of the present time. One of the most important and interesting features of the celebration was the inauguration of the National University, on the twenty-second of the month.

From North to South and East to West, the whole country was gay with flags and decorations in anticipation of the centennial of her freedom from Spanish rule.

It was just one hundred years before this inspiring event that the curate, Miguel Hidalgo, in the little adobe village of Dolores, gave the signal for the revolt which, although he lost his life in the conflict that followed, has resulted in the establishment of our important republican neighbor on the South.

Some years ago the historian Prescott wrote, "Of all that extensive empire which once acknowledged the authority of Spain in the New World, no portion for interest and importance can be compared with Mexico; and this equally whether we consider the variety of its soil and climate; the inexhaustible stores of its mineral wealth; its scenery grand and picturesque beyond example; the character of its inhabitants, not only far surpassing in intelligence that of the other North American races but reminding us, by their monuments, of the primitive civilizations of Egypt and Hindostan; or lastly the peculiar circumstances of its conquest, adventurous and romantic as any legend devised by Norman or Italian bard of chivalry."

It seems strange that we should have such a progressive sister nation so near our own doors and yet, as a people, be almost as ignorant of her intense interest in modern things as were the English people of their colony across the sea a century and a half ago; and, especially, that we should have almost as mistaken an idea of

her people, their intelligence, and passionate love of liberty. Fortunately, the authorities at Washington do know something of the country and of its veteran statesman and leader, Diaz, and sent as a special ambassador for the occasion a former Governor of Massachusetts.

In addition to this, a circular was forwarded to all School Superintendents, Mayors, and Governors in the United States, asking them to set apart September 16, 1910, as a day for "the study and contemplation of Mexico, which country will on that day celebrate the First Centennial of the Independence from Spain:" the object being to procure a better understanding between these two great and neighboring peoples of North America, by furnishing full and accurate information of the people on the other side of the Rio Grande.

The circular states that Americans have, especially during the past twenty-five years, had excellent and manifold opportunities to enjoy the benefits of travel, study, investment, and success in Mexico; that the government under Porfirio Diaz, the aged and honored President of Mexico, has transformed a revolutionary, robber-infested country, where other nations were constantly employing their armies and navies to collect debts, in thirty years' time, into a well-governed country having a surplus in its treasury of 75,000,000 silver dollars, in addition to the 61,000,000 that are being expended for government works that are commanding the admiration of foreign engineers—Mexico with its 24,151 kilometers of well-managed railroads owned by the Government; with 40,640 kilometers of telegraph lines over which messages can be sent for a distance of twenty miles at a cost of six cents in our money; with a great number of public schools, and with normal schools for teachers; with many fine public buildings, including the Temple of Justice and the Temple of Public Instruction; with hospitals and asylums, contributing to

the welfare of the people; and with great public works at its five largest seaports, Vera Cruz, Puerto Mexico, Salina Cruz, Manzanillo, and Tampico.

The Philippines

"Social progress in the Philippines" was the subject of discussion in the meeting of the Lake Mohonk Conference of Friends of the Indians and other Dependent Peoples, which was held last October. As the speakers included such men as Dr. David P. Barrows, formerly director of education in the Philippines, the Rt. Rev. Charles H. Brent, Episcopal Bishop of the Islands, and Dr. William S. Washburn, U. S. Civil Service Commissioner, the discussions were of unusual value.

Bishop Brent emphasized two things that he regards of especial importance: 1. That, for the Philippines, industrial matters shall now be placed in the
Needs of
Philippines forefront of thought, political affairs no longer needing the attention hitherto accorded them. The Philippine Islands must always be agricultural and dependent upon the industry of their inhabitants.

2. The second matter needing emphasis is education. The work of the schools has, on the whole, been commendable; but there has been a lack of industrial and technical training, a matter that is now being remedied. The results of the practice of sending promising students to America, he thinks have not been satisfactory. He says that experience shows that the regular training is better given in indigenous institutions. Then, if a pupil is worthy or desirous of a post-graduate course, that may safely be taken in a country whose customs and habits of thought are different.

Dr. Barrows spoke of the impatient and reckless politicians of the islands who, regardless of consequences, would set up their political sovereignty. He also referred to the representatives of American business interests, who seek

to open up the Philippines to large capitalized undertakings for the purpose of securing quick economic returns.

In his address, Dr. Washburn spoke of the physical characteristics of the Filipino, saying that he is relatively small in stature and lacks robustness. His failure for generations to observe the rules of personal, domestic, and public hygiene has resulted in physical deterioration. But notwithstanding this during the decade just closing he has made real and substantial progress. This is especially manifest in the establishment of peace and order, a merit system of civil service, a just system of taxation, and an admirably adapted school system.

In a recent issue of one of their most prominent Reviews, the French have paid a tribute to the educational work already done by Americans in the Philippines. They say, among other things, that the United States "has not only given a new impulse and direction to the ancient institutions founded by the Spaniards, but has also organized in the Archipelago a school system truly worthy of a modern nation."

It is well to remember that the efforts of the present government of the Philippines have not been restricted to primary and secondary education. A bill for the establishment of a university was adopted in 1908. At the same time a Board of Regents was appointed and an appropriation amounting to \$50,000 made for the purpose. The full establishment of this university awaits the raising of the standard of secondary education sufficiently high to meet its demands. The new medical school connected with this University of the Philippines was established in 1907. Although one of the universities established by the Spaniards had a faculty of medicine, it was not properly equipped for meeting the present demands of the profession. Competent physicians are badly needed in the islands, as several years ago it was estimated there was but one physician for every twenty thousand inhabitants.

Portugal

A revolution broke out in Portugal on October the fourth, 1910. King Manuel II escaped before the revolutionists captured the capital. The army and navy supported the revolutionists, and, although some fighting in the streets of Lisbon, between the troops who remained loyal to the King, and the revolutionists, was reported, the close censorship exercised over all news made it difficult to learn the facts. A republic has been declared and Theophile Braga has been put in charge of the temporary government. The republic was proclaimed amidst the most frantic enthusiasm.

The Portuguese government has, for three-quarters of a century, had a reputation for political corruption and indifference to public honesty that has scarcely ever been equalled. The two political parties, the Conservatives and the Liberals, have continually played into each other's hands as they have alternated in governmental control, so that corruption has penetrated into every branch of civil and military service. Even the Portuguese judiciary has had a reputation for turpitude remarkable even among the recognized corruption of other officials. Under such conditions, it is not at all remarkable that honest and sincere people among all classes have turned for relief to republicanism, in the hope of securing a regeneration among a people who in spite of existing public conditions possess so many admirable qualities.

Whether the establishment of the new government shall prove a success depends, as it does in all republican governments, upon how readily it shall call forth capable, upright, and well-trained statesmen, and an intelligent body of public support for its maintenance. The country is unfortunately still one of the most illiterate in Western Europe, and the present officials have received

their training in a bad school. The exigencies of the times may, however, bring better men to the front and the people be led gladly to welcome the influence and attainments of the more progressive nations.

Recognition of the Republic of Portugal by other nations depends upon whether the people of Portugal themselves shall accept the new gov-
Recognition of Republic
 ernment. Such recognition by other nations does not imply either commendation or sympathy, nor does it indicate a recognition of the legitimacy or justice by which the new government is brought about.

The attitude of the United States in such cases is the one established by Jefferson when, upon the proclamation of the French Republic in 1793, he wrote, "We surely cannot deny to any nation that right whereon our own government is founded, that every one may govern itself by whatever form it pleases, and change these forms at its own will; and that it may transact its business with foreign nations through whatever organ it thinks proper, whether king, convention, assembly, committee, president, or anything else it may choose. The will of the nation is the only thing essential to be regarded."

The new government has mapped out an ambitious program for itself. The financial budget is to be arranged in the interests of the people and not in the interests of the officials and their favorites. It is also to be made up with honesty and fairness. Free-
Program for Education
 dom of the press is to be assured and all star-chamber methods to be abolished. The army and the navy are to be reorganized. Public instruction is to be completely secularized and entirely relieved from religious control. A broad system of public instruction, both primary and higher, is planned and it is to have a government endowment.

In brief, there is to be a policy of decentralization both in local administration and in the government of

the colonies. This means a making over of the country. Whether the people can be educated up to the proper support for such a program—the majority of them being ignorant—or whether, because they are an emotional people, they are merely acting upon an impulse stirred up by scheming leaders, remains to be seen. Although the love of kingly rule has been deeply rooted in them through centuries of time, the growth of the spirit of independence and a longing for freedom has undoubtedly been growing, especially as they have marked the success of the former child of the monarchy, Brazil.

It is unfortunate that one of the first acts of the people who proclaimed the new republic in Portugal was to attack the Catholic religious orders in the country. The monks, from all accounts, have been treated with needless severity. As a result of this, a great exodus of the religious orders at once began. The new government seems determined to separate absolutely the Church and the State, and to take away all special privileges that formerly were enjoyed by these orders, in order to put their members on the same footing as other citizens. Orders were almost at once issued by the new government to expel all Jesuits and foreign members of the religious orders; the native members being allowed the privilege of remaining, provided they resign from the order and return to their families. Under this decree of expulsion all of the property of the Jesuits reverts to the State.

Whether or not it was essential to the welfare of Portugal that these religious orders should be shorn of power and influence, is a question for the Portuguese themselves to decide. But all such questions should be settled on the basis of justice and moderation. Intolerance, and especially violence, merely creates factions and opens wounds for which a country must pay in long years of restricted development.

Russia

A great wave of crime has been sweeping over Russia since the close of the war with Japan. This has been attributed by the "revolutionists" to the arbitrary acts of government officials and to the inhuman treatment accorded prisoners who often with-
Wave of Crime
 out any just cause have been arrested, thrown into badly-managed prisons, and cruelly condemned to exile, and even to death itself. The government officials, on the other hand, attribute these outbreaks to the lawlessness of the revolutionists and to the demoralizing statements of a reactionary press.

Aside from the demoralizing influence that accompanies and follows in the train of all wars, there is a third and very plausible explanation offered. In connection with a recent exhibition of reading matter given in St. Petersburg, statistical tables
Demoralizing Literature
 compiled by what is known as the Department of Press Affairs, show that during the year 1909 there were issued in Russia nearly 9,000,000 copies of books and periodicals embracing in all some 600 separate titles. Of this immense issue, the literature of crime outclassed all others excepting school-books, almanacs, and tracts. As this "blood and thunder" stuff circulates chiefly among the more ignorant and excitable peasantry, being sold at an average price of three cents per copy, the influence for evil is difficult to realize.

Social workers and educators long ago recognized the potent influence of good literature and the dangerous tendencies of the flimsy "penny dreadfuls." And, while in this country free libraries and a wealth of good supplementary reading matter in the schools have done much towards reducing the influence of such sensational books to a minimum, we also have, in places and among certain classes, more of them than we should. In Russia, with its hordes of morally undisciplined peasants

and an almost utter absence of such restraining influences, their tendency is towards an abnormal condition, even though its reputation for crime has always been among the worst.

What with the recent ravages of the cholera, its heavy burden of taxation, the friction which is constantly in evidence between the ruling class and the people, and this additional serious problem, this Empire of unparalleled land possessions is facing issues that will severely tax its tremendous resources.

Many of these issues the Government has brought upon itself by its own intolerance and cruelty. A marked instance of this has been the order for the expulsion of the Jews from certain territory. Up to the fifth of June, 1910, over 30,000 Jews had been expelled from such territory; over 7000 of these being from Kiev alone. In the majority of cases, this expulsion was without any preliminary warning, the people being driven away without opportunity to dispose of their possessions or to take with them any of their personal belongings. Such acts, combined with the travesty of justice in her courts and the execrable condition of her entire penal system, are bringing down upon Russia the righteous wrath of her own best people.

There is one thing, however, in which Russia has taken advanced standing, and that is in its general interest in industrial education, whether it be primary, secondary, or technical. The educational journals, and even the daily papers, are full of the subject, and appropriations for its extension are almost constantly under consideration in one or more of the provinces.

Although Russia is proverbially backward in nearly all matters pertaining to popular education, it has a well-organized system of industrial training and was one of the first to develop the manual-training idea. Both the government and private individuals contribute

freely to the establishment and maintenance of these schools. Among the more recent donations for these schools should be noted a gift, amounting to about two and a half millions of dollars, by the great railway contractor Th. V. Trapeznikoff, and of the mine owner N. P. Trapeznikoff of nearly one and a half millions. Several smaller donations are also reported. (See *Education* for October, 1910.)

Spain

The marriage of King Alfonso to a princess of the Battenberg family may bring about unforeseen changes in that stronghold of Catholicism, the Iberian Peninsula. There are indications that the British Court and the influence of the Battenberg family are both drawing the King of Spain into a closer union with England and France than has hitherto existed. Since the marriage, undoubted leniency, and even encouragement, has been shown to the Anglican religion. Because of this, twenty-five Anglican chapels and eighty Protestant schools have been allowed to open in a country which always has been inclined to intolerance of other faiths than the Catholic.

Religious
Changes

But what is more remarkable is that in the royal house of Spain, probably the most aristocratic in all Europe, the Queen mother, the founder of whose house in the not distant past was a waiter, should be able to carry out her own ideas in regard to who should be members of her household, despite the protests of both the Vatican and the aristocratic families of Spain. Changes in popular sentiment have been taking place during the past decade and have made these things possible. Especially since the Spanish-American War, and the loss of her colonies, has there been a marked growth toward republicanism in Spain, a republicanism which, as in all European monarchies, is decidedly socialistic in character.

While it is difficult for an outsider to understand clearly all that is involved in the questions at issue, it is quite evident that they are of a political-religious character, and that tendencies toward representative government are gathering around a strong anti-clerical movement which tends to make free both the government and society in general, from the predominating influence of the Church of Rome.

What is of more interest to schoolmen, however, is the fact that the King and his ministry both seem determined to enforce the idea that the prejudices and co-actions of the prevailing dogmatism shall be expelled from the schools. This gives promise of the implanting of an independence in thinking and acting which, combined with the industrial development that is going on in both Spain and Portugal, will in the course of time restore both countries to much of their old time vigor and power.

King Alfonso late in July recalled Marquis Emilio de Ojeda, the Spanish ambassador to the Vatican. The Vatican had insisted that the imperial decree which permitted non-Catholic societies to display their insignia of worship, be withdrawn before it would consider any revision of the Concordat. This condition the Spanish Government would not accept.

At this time it looked as if a rupture between the two was inevitable. The general situation in Spain of severe tension between the Clericals and the Anti-clericals was complicated by unrest among the miners of the Catalonian provinces, and by occasional open clashes between the Catholic and non-Catholic elements throughout the country. The situation was further complicated by the Carlist pretender to the Spanish throne, Don Jaime of Bourbon, the only son of Don Carlos, issuing a manifesto to the Carlists in Parliament commending them for their loyalty to the Pope and for their defense of the Church, and offering to lead them to battle.

The Concordat of 1851 was an agreement, between the kingdom and the Vatican, which gave practically free access to religious orders in Spain when their presence was approved by both the Holy See and the Government, and when their object was "to carry on missions in the towns of their dioceses, to assist the parish priests, to come to the aid of the sick, and to do other works of charity." This brought in a large number of these orders, and their numbers were greatly augmented after the passage of the French Associations law in 1901. These French orders led to the migration of entire religious communities, with their industries; so that to-day there are in the Spanish Peninsula nearly 5000 religious communities, with a total of nearly 60,000 members.

The
Concordat

Four years ago an effort was made to follow the example of France, with the idea of bringing these religious orders under State control and securing either a revision of the Concordat or a separation of Church and State. Several movements had already begun that had aroused the Catholics. In one of these the State had made civil marriage obligatory and apparently minimized the necessity of the religious ceremony. Then, in 1901, an association bill modelled after that of France was drafted. In 1902, a law was passed requiring the registration of all religious associations or orders. But it was difficult to enforce these regulations, and there was so much political unrest that the ministerial government was frequently overthrown.

The present climax was brought about through the failure of negotiations with the Vatican which had for their object the revision of the Concordat. On the fourth of November, the Senate of Spain passed a bill prohibiting the creation of any more religious establishments in the country until the revision of the Concordat with the Vatican is completed. As Premier Canalejas is showing a more friendly spirit in the matter of this

revision, it is now hoped that the modifications in the Concordat most desired—namely, those pertaining to liberty of conscience, entire freedom in education, and a limitation of the religious orders—may yet be peaceably secured.

The alumni of the higher commercial schools of Madrid, at a recent congress, agreed to make an effort to secure scholarships for graduates of these schools, which

Commercial Education would enable them to visit foreign countries for the purpose of learning their commercial methods and needs. While good results could, no doubt, be made to attend such a plan, it would seem wiser to send teachers instead of students, because of their greater ability to grasp the force and meaning of what they would see and the larger opportunity of the teacher to spread as widely as possible the benefits of such a visit.

The Turkish Empire

Many are apt to think of the East, especially the region of the Eastern Mediterranean, as a place where men go on living as their fathers did twenty centuries ago—working with the same tools, having the same manners and customs, even thinking the same thoughts. To such, it will be a revelation to learn that there is a transformation going on in the heretofore quiet and uneventful lives of these people, which is more rapid and revolutionary than has ever been known in the more progressive West.

The conditions of advanced development in so many of the surrounding countries and the happenings within their own borders have favored these rapid changes. The

Progressive Movements recent Turkish Revolution encouraged freedom of speech, where once was only arbitrary repression of both thought and act. Newspapers are springing up everywhere and fearlessly advocating advanced ideas. Great strides are being made in agri-

culture. With the exception of Constantinople and a few small seaports of Syria and Palestine, the interests of Turkey are essentially agricultural; and the farmers of the interior, who once clung with almost childish devotion to the implements of their fathers, have gotten a taste of the superiority of Western methods.

According to an account in the *Christian Herald* of September 21, 1910, a year or two ago a stock company was formed among the natives of Palestine, and an English gang-plow of seventy horse-power was imported and put at work in the rich plain of Gaza. The good work done has induced the new governor of Jerusalem to order five more of these implements for use in the Jordan Valley and the plain of Sharon. A steam road-roller for use on the streets of Jerusalem has also been ordered. Irrigation for the Jordan Valley is also under serious consideration. A German firm has applied for the privilege of furnishing an adequate water-supply to the city of Jerusalem. As a great deal of distress and disease arise in this city towards the end of summer, when the cisterns become empty and water is sold from sheep skins, the citizens realize the importance of a better water supply and have appointed a committee to consider the offer of this German company.

The agricultural development has given an important impetus and outlet to the Zionist movement. Until within the last year or two, the Jewish immigrants have settled in the large towns and carried on such light trades as tinkering, shoe-repairing, and clothes-mending. Now, however, the Zionist agents are rapidly buying up land and establishing colonies of farmers. A large part of the Jordan Valley is already in their possession, just as much of the Holy City itself is already owned by Jewish landlords. So rapid is this Jewish possession advancing that native local journals (Moslem) are warning the people against the Israelitish invasion and the probable driving out of the native farmer. This fear is well-

founded, for the Jew is equipped with modern implements of farming and, moreover, is backed by rich capitalists in Europe and America.

However, it is along educational lines that the most marked changes are taking place. Compulsory public
Education education laws were among the very first legislation enacted by the new regime. As not over fifty per cent. of the boys and less than one per cent. of the girls attended any school whatever, the pressing need of education was manifest. Under the influence of the new enactments, schools were established everywhere; night schools, where the Turkish language and the rudiments of learning are taught, have been opened in all of the large centers, and many additional schools of a more or less public character have sprung up through the efforts of private contributions and private enterprise.

The old mission schools established and maintained by English and American church philanthropy, have been compelled to modify their courses to meet the competition of these schools as well as the more modern requirements brought in by this wave of progress. The people everywhere are manifesting a remarkable appreciation of education and are willing to pay liberally for it. What this means in the way of promise for both education and religion can readily be seen. Strange to say, the writer in the *Christian Herald* seems to think that these progressive movements are reviving Islamism by forcing its followers into a closer union, for the fanatical Moslem (and they form 96 per cent. of the population) fears the overthrow of his religion. Fortunately, however, the young Turkish leaders are more liberal and progressive.

United South Africa

The confederation of South African States which is now known as United South Africa went into effect May 30th, 1910. It unites into one State, Cape Colony,

Orange River Colony, Natal, and the Transvaal. Viscount Gladstone has been made its first Governor General. General Louis Botha, who figured so largely in the Boer War, formed the first cabinet, he himself taking the positions of Premier and Minister of Agriculture. There are altogether six departments in the Government, each having a Minister as its official head. It is especially interesting to know that one of these departments is a Department of Education, with F. S. Malan as its Minister. In giving education at least equal standing with other governmental interests, this new Federation is a step in advance of the United States, where the general educational interests of the country receive official recognition only as one of the many interests of the Department of the Interior.

The first Parliament of United South Africa (U. S. A.) was opened November 4 by the Duke of Connaught, as representative of King George of England. The occasion was made a general holiday. At the Parliament House Governor General Viscount Gladstone, Premier Botha with his cabinet, the Governors of the various States, and the newly elected Parliament gave honor to the King's messenger. The States represented in the Union were formerly governed by their respective Legislatures and directly under the control of the British Colonial Office. Now they retain these local Legislatures, but all affairs not purely local will be in charge of the Governor General and the Federal Parliament and be under the general control of the British Government.

There are at present two dominant political parties in South Africa. These are the Nationalists, who represent in general the voters of Dutch descent, with Premier Botha as their leader; and the Progressives or English party, with Doctor Jamison, the famous raider, as their leader. As Premier Botha is not an aggressive man, his policies are receiving the support of many of the English colonists.

PART VII

CHAPTER XII

MEETINGS

The National Education Association

THE Association held its last annual meeting in Boston, July 1-8, 1910. This was one of the best attended meetings that has been held within recent years. The attractions of Boston as a great center of literary and historical interest contributed, no doubt, very largely to the drawing power of the meeting. To this was added the attractiveness of Boston's reputation for providing wisely and well for the entertainment and convenience of its guests.

The meeting was honored by the presence of the President of the United States, who, on the afternoon of July 4, addressed a large concourse of people in the Stadium of Harvard University. President Taft naturally took for his theme the Declaration of Independence and made special applications of its principles to the policy of the Government in connection with the Philippine Islands.

For the first time in its history, the National Education Association elected a woman, Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, who is Superintendent of the Chicago Schools, to its presidency. This was after an exciting canvass which in many respects departed very radically from the methods of election which had heretofore prevailed.

PRESIDENT J. Y. JOYNER, State Superintendent of Schools of North Carolina, opened the meetings of the Association with an able address on Democracy and

Altruism, in which, in part, he said: "The spirit of altruism so manifest in American life is becoming more and more potent in American education. Consecration of individual talent and power, of intellectual, moral, and spiritual wealth of every sort, to the uplift of all, shall at last become the dominant doctrine in every American School."

President
J. Y. Joyner

The peace movement, he said, was the natural product of this spirit of democracy and altruism. Education must cultivate those virtues which make for peace—love, mercy, justice, recognition of the rights of others. The public health movement, he said, was another product of these same conditions, and he pointed to the fact that knowledge and power are of little avail if physical vigor be lost through disease.

In concluding, President Joyner said: "Teachers of America, go forth to your work of lifting humanity into finger touch with the Almighty, unawed by fear, unrestrained by pessimism, sustained by faith in the holiness of your mission, assured that you hold the strategic point in education, which is and ever must be the strategic point in civilization."

Important parts of other addresses and discussions follow:

TRIBUTE TO DR. HARRIS.—DOCTOR J. M. GREENWOOD, Superintendent of the Schools of Kansas City, Mo., paid a beautiful and well deserved tribute to the memory of his deceased friend, Doctor Harris. He said, in part: "To-day there is a vacancy in each heart here that ever came in close contact with the vigorous personality of William Torrey Harris, who died in his 74th year, November 5, 1909, at Providence, Rhode Island.

"He shed a steady and clear light on every question that he ever presented to the National Education Association. His contributions covered the most diversified fields of thought. He was equally at home in all. Undoubtedly he was the best-informed all-round citizen of

this country. For more than sixty-five years he had been a learner and thinker. In far-reaching constructive statesmanship he would have ranked with the very ablest in Europe or in America.

"As an interpreter of history, political institutions, of the civil and moral law, and of sociological, economic and social conditions he was unexcelled even by those who are specialists each in his own chosen field. But in the realm of psychology, philosophy and logic in their bearing on systems of education, he stood head and shoulders above all others on this continent if not in the world. He was the many-sided scholar, philosopher and educator—great in the simplicity of his character.

"Little appreciated while here among us, yet the living and those that come after us will turn more frequently to his published addresses as sources of information, of inspiration, and of wisdom than to those of any other of America's great educators and philosophers. His rank is among the world's greatest men and his statue should be placed in the 'Hall of Fame' in our National Capitol as America's greatest contribution to scholarship, education and philosophy."

CRITICISM OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS BY THE LAITY.—This was discussed by JAMES W. CRABTREE, President of the State Normal School in Peru, Neb.

"There are three classes of the laity," said Mr. Crabtree, "who pass criticism upon the public schools: (1) The smallest, least-important, but a most troublesome one, is the class known as the chronic fault-finders; (2) a much larger and a more dangerous class is composed of those whose disapproval has back of it something personal, political, factional or otherwise selfish; (3) the larger class of people whose criticisms grow out of true loyalty to the public schools, coupled with an interest in young people and a genuine desire to promote their welfare.

"The honest opinion of every thoughtful man is entitled to respect and consideration. The chronic kicker,

however, has no place in this class. He is the obstinate individual who is never suited. Whatever is, is wrong. If the discipline is strong, it is an outrage. If it is mild, it is branded as a failure. Every teacher must accept with resignation the fact that the chronic fault-finder is now and always will be a part of his life.

"Those who criticise because of some personal grievance and for other selfish reasons are the source of most of the serious troubles of the school. They resort to all kinds of extremes to get even with the superintendent, teacher or board member.

"The greatest good comes from the best people. When this class of people speak their views are respected."

FEDERAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION.—The Commissioner of Education of the United States referred to a new division in his Department for the promotion of better methods of school administration. He also emphasized the value of having the central educational office at Washington follow up such matters as the abatement of child-labor and the promotion of the health and general welfare of the child; the value of this central agency in rendering assistance to other socially helpful workers; and especially to its value as an agency for procuring and disseminating valuable information.

Doctor Brown then referred with some detail to the work done in Alaska. He pictured the work there as being the most extensive experiment of the kind being carried on anywhere in the world: "Such a practice school presents the white man's burden in its most concrete form, with all of the difficulties and all of the inspiring opportunities presented by this greatest world education movement of our time." He then added, "There, in Alaska, the school physician and the school nurse are now going up and down, helping the people in their sickness and teaching them how to live clean and wholesome lives.

"The girls are learning to cook and to sew and to make good homes. The boys are learning to earn an honest livelihood under their new conditions by new industrial pursuits, by the raising of reindeer, by improved fishing, gardening and the use of common tools. They are learning something of the white man's wisdom and the white man's better aims in life, which shall help them in their new relations with the white man as their neighbor and fellow-laborer."

He then referred to some of the important educational movements in the United States, such as: Industrial education in its threefold forms of trade schools, schools of domestic art, and schools for rural life; to the need of adequate supervision for rural schools; to the need of better training for teachers; to the relations which should exist between secondary schools and the colleges and universities.

Prominent among the questions soon to arise, he said, would be those relating to the need for a National department of education; for a National university at Washington, and for the extension of Federal aid to the States, especially for the purposes of Industrial education.

MOTIVIZING WORK.—DOCTOR ELIOT advocated the having of a life-career motive during the process of education: "The teaching profession nowadays recognizes the fact that only those processes of education are successful which procure the active interest and coöperation of the minds and wills subjected to them."

The fields in which these internal motives have fullest play are in such professions as divinity, law, medicine, architecture, engineering, forestry, teaching, business and corporate service. These students usually exhibit keen interest in their studies; they work hard, advance rapidly, and avail themselves of every opportunity to gain knowledge and skill.

"In secondary education the high schools of commerce and mechanic arts have a decided advantage, as

regards motive power within the pupil, over the ordinary high schools. The industrial schools, trade schools, continuation schools, evening and summer schools, business colleges, and Y. M. C. A. classes in secular subjects show a large proportion of strongly interested pupils." This is largely due to the motive of the life-career which these students realize as opening before them.

"The next question is—and it is a grave one—who is going to guide the inexperienced child to a wise preliminary choice of a life-career? The answer must be: the parents and the teacher, but mainly the teacher.

"At present we are permitting the great majority of American children to go out into the world as unskilled laborers, without having chosen any trade or other occupation requiring skill, and without having felt in their school-work the motive of the life-career." This is an evil that must be cured by a serious modification of the program of the elementary and secondary school. And this is not an impossibility; because Germany, France, Switzerland, and Belgium can all show this thing as actually done.

"However, whoever advocates the introduction of more concrete work and the elements of industrial training into the public schools will meet with three objections: (1) there is no time for more subjects; (2) the present amount of instruction in the so-called academic subjects is inadequate and ought not to be reduced; (3) instruction in industrial subjects and in applied science is costly and there is not enough money for what is already being done.

Objections
to Industrial
Training

"To meet the first objection, the best way is to increase the school time per day and per year. This would now be possible with due regard for the health and vigor of the children because many of the new subjects call for bodily exercise, and also because improvements already effected in school grounds and buildings make the hours spent in school quite as healthy as those

spent at home—healthier indeed under many urban conditions. The increased time per day and per year would also remove any necessity for reducing the academic or cultural elements.

“Finally, the third objection—no money—must be met by getting more money, public and private, to spend on schools. Some unobservant and unimaginative people say that it is impossible to increase public expenditure, whether for schools or any other object. The answer to that pessimism is that public expenditure for schools and for many other objects has been greatly increased within the past thirty years and that almost all citizens hold that school expenditure ought to be increased”; for “it yields a larger and quicker return, material, mental and moral, than any other expenditure.”

H. B. WILSON, Superintendent of Schools of Decatur, Ill., spoke upon the same general topic of Motivizing the work of the school. He said in part: “It is almost an axiom that the happier one is in pursuit of his work the greater are his returns, both inner and external, both spiritual and material. One’s joy in his work seems to depend primarily upon the relation which the worker sees existing between his work and the largest goal he is seeking to realize, and between his work and all life about him. Judged by absolute standards, an individual’s goal may be temporary and insignificant. For him, however, its realization is meaningful and all-important. Social efficiency and good citizenship are most apt to be developed in any individual, therefore, by providing him with work to do which seems to him to contribute directly toward the realization of his chosen goal, be it native or acquired.”

UNIVERSAL EDUCATION AND INTERNATIONAL PEACE.
—P. P. CLAXTON, of the University of Tennessee, drew a vivid picture of what might be accomplished could the money annually spent upon maintaining an army and navy be used for the purpose of advancing universal

education: "If we could save for educational purposes this year the amount the United States is paying for the support of the army and navy," Mr. Claxton declared, "we could build up an educational structure that could not but work mightily for international peace.

"We could build a national university with an annual income of \$10,000,000; a great university in every State, each with an annual income of \$1,000,000; 100 high schools in every State with an income of \$20,000 each; five normal schools and five technical schools in every State with an income of \$25,000 each; and then have \$1,000,000 more for the common schools in each of the forty-six States.

"The result—universal education. And that spells universal democracy. And democracy is learning that it matters but little to whom territory belongs, for there is as much profit in trade as there is in tribute and more."

TRAINING OF TEACHERS.—The importance of the normal school for the training of teachers was emphasized by **PRESIDENT JOSEPH H. HILL** of the State Normal School, Emporia, Kan., in his annual address as president of the Department of Normal Education. "Training for teaching cannot properly be made a mere incident in a student's general course," he declared. "The normal college is a distinctively professional school. It differs from other professional schools in this, that so far as subject matter is concerned its various courses deal with the same material and traverse much the same ground as in a school the purpose of whose course is generally literary or scientific; hence, the difficulty of securing a clear recognition of the actual differentiation. There is the possibility, however, of establishing a definite line of demarcation; and this is what the normal schools and colleges are doing. If they are not and cannot they have no reason for being."

Mr. Hill named as a vital essential in such a school, "the recognition in the organization of every subject

that the prime purpose in every teachers' school is the organization of the subject matter for presentation and that all organized knowledge is but a means to an end in the process of education." He declared that this "is the principle by which is to be determined and tested the distinctive content of its course."

DOMINATION OF HIGHER INSTITUTIONS.—High school criticism of the domination of the college which assumed such proportions in the Denver meeting was again taken up in the Boston meeting. It was so pronounced in Boston that resolutions were adopted of which it has been said "They substitute for college domination of high schools, high school domination of colleges."

AGRICULTURE.—**PROFESSOR G. F. WARREN** of Cornell, speaking before the department of rural and agricultural education, said: "When your father was a farmer he could succeed without education because he was competing with men who were also untrained for the work. The young man who starts farming to-day must be able to compete with the large number who have some training for farming.

"The farmer of the future who succeeds without training must be an unusually able man.

"Investigation made by Cornell University shows that in one county 398 farmers who attended the district schools only, have average labor incomes of \$318; 165 who attended high school have average labor incomes of \$622; and 10 who attended college or university have average labor incomes of \$847.

"If our schools are to serve the people, every high school must offer agriculture as an elective.

"Most teachers used to say that any fool could farm. It is now interesting to hear the same teachers say that agriculture is too difficult for high schools."

DEAN H. L. RUSSELL of the College of Agriculture, University of Wisconsin, also urged the importance of agricultural education. "It is," he said, "well within

the province of the college and secondary school interested in the development of agriculture to carry the teachings of modern agricultural science to the rank and file of those who support our entire economic structure. The schools, both secondary and higher, are unquestionably moulding at a rapid rate the youth of our land, and the beneficial results of such training are becoming increasingly evident.

"But what of the millions who are struggling with the problem of impoverished fertility, of wasting disease, of lack of knowledge regarding the essentials as to the proper care and handling of crops, conditions which are easily possible of improvement, but which are as yet too infrequently neglected for lack of proper knowledge? Are these to be left alone in their struggle, while attention is directed solely to the youth of the land?

"The economic need of the hour is increased production, and we as a people are rapidly passing from the status of a creditor to that of a debtor nation. Rapidly increasing prices of our products, and the rapid increase of home demand have robbed us largely of our European markets, and unless our production is materially increased within the next decade, or even less, that time will see us importing our bread-stuffs."

PHYSICAL TRAINING OF GIRLS.—REBECCA STONE-ROAD, director of physical training in Washington, D. C., in an address before the Department of Physical Education, urged the necessity of systematic physical training for girls during childhood. While much attention had been given to the physical development of the boys, she maintained that the girls have been neglected in this respect. Continuing, she said: "There is no doubt that girls, as compared with boys, are even in greater need of all the benefits which are to be derived from a wisely planned, thoroughly executed, and complete course in physical education."

"It has been stated by an orthopedic surgeon in a hospital for children, that of the children who apply to the hospital in consequence of physical developmental defects, hardly more than five per cent. are boys. In other words, about 95 per cent. are girls."

Speaking before the same department, MISS ELIZABETH WRIGHT, of Radcliffe College, declared: "The problems connected with the physical training of post-adolescent girls would be simplified if mothers and educators were more generally acquainted with the laws of growth and alive to the formation of correct physical habits during childhood.

"The physical condition of the average high school and college girl is only fair. The rôle of physical training is to provide stimulus and opportunity for increasing vitality, and for repairing the defects of faulty growth and incorrect motor habits before it is too late."

SCHOOL GARDENS.—WALLACE E. MASON of North Andover gave an illustrated lecture on School Gardens carried on by school children in various parts of the United States; showing some with the children at work in them in Porto Rico and Hawaii.

Mr. Mason said a school garden should be connected with every school, where the children can see the shrubs, trees and flowers constantly and enjoy them. That the school garden idea is not a new one, Mr. Mason demonstrated by relating incidents of the establishment of such gardens in Austria, in Italy, in Belgium, Sweden, South Russia, Austro-Hungary, and in France, where the State refuses to accept a school building unless it is accompanied by property to be made into a garden for the pupils.

In this country, Mr. Mason said, the most systematic work in school gardens is done in Washington, D. C., where the department of education has turned over two acres for this purpose. Cleveland has a curator of school

gardens. One of the best school gardens in the United States, Mr. Mason said, is to be found in Dayton, O.

In all of the New England States, he stated, the school garden is becoming more popular and being accepted by town after town each year. He believed a school garden was as important as a school library, and gave three reasons for his belief in the importance of the garden.

"First," said Mr. Mason, "it appeals to the interest of the child in seeing something happen; second, the school garden always rouses interest in the other school work as perhaps no other school work can do; third, the social side of it is very appealing. It links itself so closely to the home life of the child, and this is a great problem for the immediate future for educators—that of bringing the home and the school into the old-time close relationship."

The committee appointed at the 1907 meeting of the N. E. A. to consider "The Place of the Industries in Public Education," rendered their report at the Boston meeting. The report is published in pamphlet form and should prove very helpful in the final solution of this new and valuable phase of education.

Report of
Committee
on Industrial
Education.

RESOLUTIONS.—The Association went on record as earnestly desiring two very important things: 1. That the Federal Bureau of Education, which is now merely a subordinate branch of the Department of the Interior, be treated more liberally in the appropriations by Congress. 2. To put itself in line with the rising demand for arbitration as a method of settling international disputes.

The next meeting of the N. E. A. is to be held in San Francisco July 8-11, 1911. The annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A. is to be held in Mobile, Ala., February 23-25.

DOCTOR SHEPARD.—It is pleasing to note the unanimous re-election of Doctor Irwin Shepard as secretary of

the National Education Association for a term of four years beginning August 1, 1910. Owing to the growing burden of the work, Doctor Shepard was given authority to nominate an assistant secretary to help in the task. To those who have been intimately acquainted with the work of the N. E. A. for the last twenty years, the Doctor's name is almost a household word. His knowledge of its affairs and his skill and tact in dealing with its complex problems have made him invaluable in his place. It would be hard to conceive of an N. E. A. meeting without his genial presence.

CHAPTER XIII

MEETINGS—*Continued*

National Society of Industrial Education

THE fourth annual convention of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education was held in Boston, November 17-19, 1910.

Much of the interest of the Convention centered upon finding out the best methods of indicating to young people, in a safe and sympathetic way, the various avenues of vocational work and the proper preparation to be made for the line of work chosen and for the life to be lived in connection with it. As matters now stand the majority of our youths are "pitchforked into industry." Hence, means must be found to furnish them with accurate information in regard to the various occupations, to give them the larger social vision demanded by the times, and to help them with expert friendship. These have been well called the three corner-stones of vocational guidance.

As there was an unusually large expert representation from the business and manufacturing world, as well as from among social workers and educators, in this Conference, it marks one of the most important general meetings on the subject that has yet been held. A few of the profitable things stated at the various meetings follow:

On the philosophic side of the question of Industrial Training, DR. T. N. CARVER, of Harvard, said that the most important factor in all production is the human factor. He gave as examples Scotland and New England, which have grown rich notwithstanding their poor natural resources, while Spain and Southern Italy have grown poor although

The Philosophic Side
of Industrial
Training

surrounded by rich resources. He named four forms of waste labor power that are seriously interfering with production: the unemployed, the imperfectly employed, the improperly employed, and the voluntary idle. By the imperfectly employed, Professor Carver meant "all who are doing less skilled work than they might be doing if they had only had adequate training."

On the question of the possible expansion of industry he said: "The expansion of industry depends upon the transformation of less skilled into more skilled labor power; for industry can expand only so far as its scarcest factor will permit. Since the scarcest factors in every industry are the highly skilled forms of labor power, the addition of a hundred skilled laborers would add greatly to the existing productive power."

CHARLES H. WINSLOW of the Bureau of Labor of Washington, D. C., called attention to the fact that while the real hope for industrial education is with the public schools, "There is one danger, however, that imperils their usefulness in this regard, the possibility that they may be dominated by the policy of private corporations." "In our zeal for industrial education, we must not develop a one-sided education with the single aim of turning out a mechanic, at the possible sacrifice of the citizen of to-morrow."

To this DR. DAVID SNEDDEN added: "An ideal education should so combine preparation for life and preparation for earning a living as to make these but varying aspects of a single educational problem."

PRESIDENT MACLAURIN, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, declared that the greatest need of our boys to-day is the sympathetic advice of high-minded business men. He said that we hear so much these days about waste of the natural resources and yet hardly anything concerning a more serious and pitiable waste—that of misdirected effort, where men work with all of their energy yet hopelessly because in a wrong

field. The surprising thing is that with the haphazard method of choosing a calling there are not more misfits.

PROFESSOR ZUEBLIN urged that we "get at this vocational business sooner, adapting the school curriculum to the different types of children, so that we shall no longer turn out into the world each spring an army of fifteen-year-old misfits."

PROFESSOR FRANK W. LEAVITT of the University of Chicago claimed that "Vocational guidance should be made a function of the public schools and will in time lead to the establishment of public factories, farms and other institutions, operated by the pupils, who will receive suitable remuneration for their work."

MAGNUS W. ALEXANDER of the General Electric Co., who presided at one of the meetings, traced the rise of the apprenticeship system, as a first step in trade training, in ancient times through its developments in mediæval times, and its decline under the introduction of labor-saving machinery, which seemed to lessen for a time the need for apprentices. The fallacy of this assumption, however, has become evident in the inability of industrial leaders to secure a sufficient supply of men with knowledge and training which is complete enough to enable them to serve as efficient leaders and guides under the expanding life of industry.

On the practical side of the problem, GOVERNOR-ELECT FOSS of Massachusetts, who is a large manufacturer, said, "In thirty years' experience in manufacturing I have seen the need of industrial education. I have actually been restricted in production by the lack of skilled labor."

The Practical Side of Industrial Training

CHARLES H. WINSLOW, a delegate to the Convention from the American Federation of Labor, said, "The ranks of skilled labor are being depleted and the work of the trades is being done by unskilled men or semi-skilled machine specialists. The trade unions have been waiting in vain for twenty-five years for the manual-training

schools to furnish recruits to the depleted ranks of skilled labor."

The latter part of Mr. Winslow's statement indicates the general misunderstanding in regard to the purpose of manual training that seems for a time to have prevailed among trade unions and manufacturers. Another of the speakers referred to this while talking of the decline of apprenticeship: "Manufacturers relinquished their previous responsibility for the training of men so much the more readily because the public school system at that time began to incorporate manual training in its curriculum. Industry, however, expected at once to receive better industrial recruits, where it should only have looked for beginners with a better understanding of the industrial life."

MAYOR FITZGERALD answered the charge that industrial education is undemocratic by saying: "The charge has been made that vocational education is undemocratic and aims to keep the masses dependent upon the few, and thus prevents them from rising above the level of the artisan and mechanic. On the contrary, it is the essence of democracy because it recognizes the intrinsic dignity of the kind of work that most men do. More than that, it is progressive for it aims to elevate the working classes and in so doing makes them more independent of their employers."

DOCTOR ELIOT commended the wisdom of Franklin's father, who not only taught his son to respect workmen but also to love and respect work by taking him around to the various workshops of Boston. This also enabled Franklin to see what trade most appealed to him. DOCTOR FELIX ADLER commended this broader knowledge of various industries and suggested that everyone, young and old, needs to understand the viewpoint of other men's vocations.

MISS HELEN R. HILDRETH, of the Manhattan Trade School for Girls, reported that: "The skilled trades are

demanding of beginners a thorough knowledge of fundamental process, accuracy, speed, neatness, quick understanding of directions, easy adjustment from one type of work to another, ability to take responsibility, and a willing spirit." In this school, trade training is supplemented by well correlated art, mathematics, English, industrial history, civics, and the study of textiles. Better health conditions for the girls are also sought by lessons in hygiene, gymnastics, and cooking. Attention is also given to specific treatment of bodily defects.

DOCTOR KERSCHENSTEINER.—The Superintendent of the Schools of Munich, Germany, was present at the Boston meeting. In his various addresses in this country he has emphasized the following:

Many educational systems are failing to serve the nation to the best advantage because they are not teaching the joy of common labor and of a united, unselfish endeavor in behalf of the State.

There are two things to keep in mind in our efforts to fit the individual to become a worthy citizen: 1. The higher the culture of a people the less do the liberties they have won tend to act as a centrifugal force. The parliamentary constitution which is a blessing to England would be a curse to Russia in her present condition. 2. Men are not only governed by the individualistic instincts of liberty, that tend to drive them asunder, but also by social instincts that tend to unite them. In these social instincts lie the power of education and the hope of the nation.

Any effort to develop a strong national feeling must pursue the course of family education. Beginning with the home and the school, we must use the manifold organizations of public life to complete the task of education. To perform well their part of the task, the schools shall have to adjust themselves far more than ever before to the methods necessary for the development of social instincts. "They must compass this end in the

same way as the family; by not leaving children to work out their intellectual, technical and artistic tastes, their gifts of mind and will, singly, in isolated occupations, but as far as possible in the service of others, or at any rate in community of labor with others."

As schools are now constituted they are doing more to develop the intelligence and the technical or artistic dexterity of the individual than they are in the way of fitting him to become a part of the nation.

Joy in work can flourish only when the task allotted to us corresponds to our instincts, our tastes, our talents, our hopes of gaining a livelihood. "This is even more true of the child, with its unbroken egotism, than of the adult. But the instincts, talents and prospects of at least ninety per cent. of our primary scholars do not lie in the book work offered them in school. No real reform can be attained until practical work has become an organic part of the school time-table; until we have put workshops, laboratories, drawing halls, school kitchens and school gardens in the center of the entire system and have made theoretical teaching as far as possible subsidiary to this practical work.

"We need not fear that this organization of our primary and continuation schools will lead to the neglect of the old tools of culture, reading, arithmetic, and writing. On the contrary, let us enlist them in the service of joy in practical work, and they will then be employed with greater dexterity and independence than at present, where they are so disconnected with the natural inclinations of most scholars and are therefore only practiced as long as the school enforces them."

But joy in personal work must be transformed into joy in common work—that means that our schools must be transformed into communities of labor. After joy in personal work and joy in common work have been developed, "then it will be time to take the third step and transform virtues of habit into virtues of insight,

by means of instruction in the rights and duties of citizenship."

The fourth and last step is to introduce citizens to the management of their own affairs, through the various organizations of society, industry, business and government; "and especially through the formation and expansion of every kind of institution for education, employment and hygiene." The modern Constitutional State has already taken this last step. But it has done so without the preceding three having been well taken; "hence, the comparatively small influence of these institutions on the development of civic character; hence, the constant outbreaks of private and party interests."

The International Commission on the Teaching of Mathematics

There were thirty delegates present at the meeting of this Commission which was held at Brussels on August 8, 1910. The American Commissioners had delegated Professor C. B. Upton to be their representative.

Reports were submitted showing the methods of procedure in the different countries represented. Germany is working upon the plan of issuing a number of monographs upon the teaching of mathematics, each representing some phase of the work that is being investigated by a selected individual. England is working upon the same plan. The work in the United States is being done by means of committees and sub-committees, a plan which is also being followed by France. Holland has practically completed its work and Spain has already published some of its results.

It is hoped that the Bureau of Education at Washington will be able to arrange for the publication of the results of the work in the United States. It is expected that the general report of all the work of the Commission will be ready for the next general meeting at Cambridge, England, in 1912.

CHAPTER XIV

EDUCATION IN THE STATES

Arkansas

ARKANSAS has an Education Commission composed of twenty-one of its prominent citizens who are studying its school conditions for the purpose of suggesting improvements. The Commission held its first meeting in July, 1910, and unanimously adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved that our preliminary report should:

"1. Recite the history of the creation of this Commission and state its purposes.

"2. Recite the lack of unity in organization and suggest the creation of a State Board of Education to work in harmony with the State Superintendent to study educational conditions and make recommendations to the legislature.

"3. Recite conditions of rural schools and suggest the need of consolidation of schools wherever advisable.

"4. Recite the inadequate supply of teachers and suggest State aid to high schools, requiring that such schools give free tuition to all pupils in the county, and that they provide for training teachers."

Dr. Wycliffe Rose, a representative of the Southern Education Board, gives the following as the fundamental tasks before those who are directing State systems of education:

1. To bring together all the educational agencies in the State into one system of educational machinery organized in the interests of economy and efficiency.

2. To devise and get enacted a body of revenue laws which will provide for all educational purposes funds that shall be adequate in amount and stable in character.

3. To bring the State's educational business under an effective system of administration.

The State Superintendent, the Honorable George B. Cook, makes an interesting narrative comment on recent school affairs in the State of Arkansas, which shows, among other things:

A Compulsory Attendance Law which applies to 40 counties. This still leaves 35 counties without such a law.

An appropriation of \$160,000 for the establishment of four agricultural schools in the State. A farmer's institute is held each year in the month of January at the University of Arkansas. To deepen the interest in agriculture, "Boys' Corn Clubs" were organized last year through the coöperation of the Department of Agriculture at Washington, and a very creditable display was made by the boys in their contest at the State Fair in 1910.

The appointment of a Professor of Secondary Education to correlate the courses of the village and the city high schools. The sentiment favoring State aid to high schools is reported as gaining ground. Excellent work is also reported as having been done by the various School Improvement Associations of the State.

Colorado

At the last meeting of the State Legislature the following laws affecting education were passed:

1. A law providing for the physical examination of all school children.

2. A law providing for the pensioning of teachers.

3. A law providing for the certification for teaching of college and university graduates.

4. A law providing for the consolidation of rural schools. Much has been accomplished in the State during the past year in the way of improving rural school

conditions; in industrial training; and in the way of improving the school buildings and the physical welfare of the pupils.

Connecticut

At the last meeting of the legislature in Connecticut laws were passed:

Prohibiting the employment of American children under the age of 16 unless they are able to meet certain tests in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Foreign children of over 14 may be given employment certificates, "if they have an equivalent education in their native language."

The State Board of Education was directed to establish a trade school in the two places deemed best by them "for instruction in the arts and practices of trades"; no one under 14 to be admitted to these schools excepting during the vacation period, when children under 14 may be admitted. Any town in which a trade school is located may contribute "for the enlargement of such school, and for the improvement of its efficiency."

Every "town" is required to furnish, by transportation or otherwise, school accommodations so that every child over seven and under sixteen years of age can attend school.

Every town having a valuation of \$1,750,000 or less was authorized to receive from the State funds a sufficient amount to enable it annually to expend \$25 for the schooling of each child in average attendance, provided this sum is applied only to the payment of teachers' wages. This renders valuable and badly needed assistance to rural and semi-rural districts.

The State Board of Education was privileged to maintain in any of the normal schools one student from each "town" having a valuation of less than \$1,500,000, provided the living expenses of the pupil do not exceed \$150 per year.

Delaware

At the last meeting of the legislature in Delaware an Educational Commission was appointed, which now has under consideration a revision and extension of the school laws of the State.

District of Columbia

The District of Columbia reports marked progress in dealing with atypical cases in the schools.

There seems to be a growing demand in this District for a 'Teachers' Retirement law; for industrial work for pupils between the ages of twelve and fourteen; and for more thorough medical inspection, including the appointment of school nurses.

Florida

The Governor of the State of Florida has appointed an Educational Commission to revise and codify existing school laws and to recommend additions to them.

An educational campaign has recently been carried on in the State with great success. As a result of the campaign 150 school improvement associations have been organized, a State school association has been formed, and committees on libraries, public health, and various other lines of educational endeavor have been established.

One of the greatest needs of the State is reported to be a change in its Constitution which will permit the Legislature to appropriate more money for public schools.

Georgia

Atlanta recently authorized a bond issue to increase its school facilities. Four counties in the State have also voted for local taxation in order to secure increased

school facilities. As most of the counties have been levying no taxes for school purposes, these local taxes form one of the greatest needs of the State.

Laws were passed at the last meeting of the legislature permitting County Boards to borrow money for school purposes and also permitting counties to tax themselves for high school purposes.

The Secondary Industrial School in Columbus continues to do good work.

Indiana

There was no new school legislation in this State during the past year. For the future, however, a teacher's pension law is under consideration, this being perhaps the greatest present school need.

Indianapolis has recently established a number of playgrounds for the boys and girls.

Vacation schools have also recently been established in several of the cities of the State.

Iowa

There was no important school legislation in Iowa during 1910. However, several important matters are under consideration for 1911.

A number of the cities of the State made provision during the past year for the introduction of Manual Training and the Domestic Arts.

A growing interest in the teaching of Elementary Agriculture is reported from the rural communities of the State.

The movement for better-trained teachers is also spreading.

The units of school administration of the rural districts need to be enlarged in order to bring about greater and better school facilities for their children.

Kansas

There was no meeting of the Legislature in Kansas during 1910.

Many of the recommendations of the Educational Commission of the State, which was appointed in 1908, have not yet been enacted into laws. The chief propositions that will be urged at the next meeting of the Legislature are likely to be State aid for weak school districts and a minimum school term of 7 months. These, and the desirability of consolidation in rural districts, constitute probably the most pressing needs.

During the past year over 100 high schools and academies in the State introduced Normal Training Classes and are being furnished with financial aid in this work by the State.

Kansas City has recently established a Night High School and has begun to open its ward schools during the summer months for instruction in Manual Training and other subjects.

Kentucky

The Child Labor Law was amended at the 1910 meeting of the General Assembly in a manner which forbids the employment of a child under 14 during the school term.

A new Compulsory Attendance Act was also passed which requires the attendance of children between the ages of 7 and 16 at some public or private day school "for a full term or period of said school," unless they have secured employment certificates or are excused because of ill health or on account of their mental condition.

From January 1, 1911, Boards of Education in cities of the first class are to consist of five members to be elected by the qualified voters.

Consolidation of country schools is reported as one of the greatest needs of the State.

Louisiana

At the 1910 session of the General Assembly in this State the following general amendments and additions to the school laws were made:

A State Text-Book Committee, to consist of the State Superintendent and "seven educators of known character and ability," is to be appointed by the Governor. Revisions of the text-book list are to be made every three years and the Committee is also authorized to recommend for adoption and use in the public schools "a series of books for optional supplementary use" for library or reference purposes.

A law requiring the election or appointment of Parish (county) Superintendents after July, 1912. The term of these superintendents is to be four years.

But most important of all was a joint resolution proposing an amendment to the State Constitution which will require a tax levy of not less than three mills on the dollar for the support of the public schools of the State.

Another important act passed requires that agriculture, or horticulture, and home economics shall be taught in all the elementary and secondary schools of the State.

Maine

There was no meeting of the legislature in Maine during 1910.

Measures relating to Industrial Education and the State Certification of Teachers are likely to be urged upon the next legislature.

There was marked progress during the past year in the union of small towns in the State for the purpose of employing expert Superintendents to unify and strengthen the work. More than 70 per cent. of the entire school population is now under such expert Superintendents,

each working in a field small enough so that he comes in personal contact with every school and every teacher.

The State Superintendent, Payson Smith, also reports the new High School system, which has State inspection and increased State aid, as making marked progress. The State law in regard to medical inspection is also reported as producing good results, particularly in the matter of eye and ear examinations. There has also been the greatest progress in the increase of Teachers' Salaries and in lengthening of the School Year that has yet been reported in any one year.

The larger cities of the State are taking a great deal of interest in instituting a larger proportion of hand work both in the elementary and in the secondary schools.

The State still needs marked increase in salaries. With these increases can and should then be demanded an increase in the quality of the teaching.

Massachusetts

The incorporation of the Massachusetts College has already been noted.

An Act was also passed in 1910 which excuses pupils from taking part in any military exercises, if their parents or guardians object to them.

An Act was passed providing for medical inspection of working children between the ages of 14 and 16. No working certificate can be granted unless in the opinion of the examiner the child "is in sufficiently sound health and physically able to perform the work" which it intends to do.

The new law requiring the appointment of a Commissioner of Education for the State provides that his term of service shall be five years; that his appointment shall be by the State Board of Education; and that he shall be assisted by two Deputy Commissioners, one of whom shall be especially qualified to deal with Industrial Education.

An Act of far-reaching importance was passed which forbids, under penalty, the admittance of a child under 14 years of age to a place of amusement after 6 o'clock in the evening, unless the child is accompanied by a person over 21 years of age.

An Act was also passed authorizing an investigation of the advisability of establishing a system of agricultural schools throughout the Commonwealth.

Matters that are under consideration for future legislation pertain to:

- ✓ (a) This matter of agricultural education.
- (b) The State certification of High School teachers.
- (c) A provision for a three or four year tenure of office for Superintendents in rural districts.

Maryland

The State tax-rate for schools has been fixed by the last Legislature at $16\frac{1}{8}$ cents on each \$100 of assessed property. Out of this is to be paid the usual appropriation for text-books; the cost of maintaining the Normal Schools; the expenses of the State Department of Education; \$25,000 for retired teachers; State aid to "Approved High Schools;" and a sum to what is known as the Free School Fund.

A law was passed permitting each County Board to appoint a Grade Supervisor, who has had at least five years' experience as a teacher in an elementary school. These supervisors are to supplement the work of the County Superintendents.

The Board of School Commissioners of any county may also now establish High Schools which will receive aid from the State.

Money was appropriated for the establishment of a colored industrial school in each county and for the employment of a colored Supervisor who is to act under the direction of the County Superintendent just as the Grade

Supervisor is to act. A new Normal School for colored teachers was authorized to replace the present one in Baltimore.

The Salary Schedule of 1908 was changed so that the minimum yearly salary is now \$350 for beginners and \$450 for those who hold a first-grade certificate and have taught at least 8 years. Salaries have also been increased in Baltimore.

A new State Normal School is asked for to be located on a 50 acre tract of land near Baltimore. This new building, with accommodations for at least 600 students, is regarded as one of the pressing needs of the State.

Michigan

Recent legislation compels districts that do not maintain High Schools to pay the tuition of their eighth year graduates who take up this higher work in other districts.

A bill was also passed increasing the salary of the State Superintendent from \$1000 to \$4000.

Great improvements in the rural schools, especially in the teaching of agriculture, are reported. But still greater progress in rural school work is reported as one of the pressing needs of the State.

A few cities have established Trade Schools.

Minnesota

By recent Acts of the State Legislature the following have become laws:

(a) Basement rooms in all public schools have been abolished.

(b) The teaching of Agriculture and Industrial Training was provided for in certain high and graded schools. Certain forms of agricultural extension and home education were also provided for.

(c) A teacher's Retirement Fund was provided for in the three largest cities.

(d) The Compulsory Attendance Law was amended. The various matters under consideration for further legislation are:

A further extension of industrial and agricultural education; a lengthening of the school year; a further strengthening of the Attendance Law; a consolidation of rural schools; and the standardizing of teaching.

Marked progress is reported by Superintendent Schulz in the Playground movement; in Health Inspection; in the character of the new school buildings; in modernizing courses of study; in the number of Teachers' Training Departments in high schools; in the improvement of Summer Training Schools; and in the interest taken in Agriculture, Industrial Training, and the individual child.

The need of more trained teachers, with better salaries for them, is also reported.

Missouri

The most recent school legislation in Missouri was that providing for county supervision in all counties, and for State aid to weak school districts.

Laws are under contemplation which will provide for medical inspection of all school children; for annual meetings of county associations of school boards; for the consolidation of school districts and the transportation of pupils; and for township or county high schools.

State Superintendent Gass reports a revival of interest in country schools since the adoption of county supervision; also that there were about 8000 rural school graduates last year. The enrollment in all High Schools is gradually increasing.

Montana

Montana is contemplating some changes in the Certification of Teachers and in the manner of holding Teachers' Institutes.

At the last meeting of the Legislature an appropriation was made for the establishment of an Agricultural Experimental Station in connection with the Montana Agricultural College at Bozeman.

A Bill was also passed making the 12th day of October of each year a public holiday, to be known as "Columbus Day."

The second Tuesday in May in each year was also set aside as "Arbor Day," "In order that the children in our public schools shall assist in the work of adorning the school grounds with trees, and to stimulate the minds of the children towards the benefits of preservation and perpetuation of our forests and the growing of timber."

A Bill making weekly fire-drills obligatory in all schools "either public or private, in which thirty or more are enrolled," was also enacted.

Nevada

Nevada is considering legislation which will provide:

(a) For the investment of the school funds of the State in county bonds, etc.

(b) Additional sources of school revenue.

(c) Industrial training in the schools.

The State Superintendent, John Edwards Bray, reports marked progress during the past year in: A larger attendance at the high schools; in the character of the new buildings erected; in the introduction of manual training and domestic science; in better training for teachers; and in school supervision. All school supervision in Nevada is now directly under the full control of the State Superintendent.

State aid for industrial training is regarded as one of the greatest present needs.

New Hampshire

This State reports an increased interest in Industrial Education, especially as it pertains to Agricultural Courses in Rural High Schools.

New Mexico

As New Mexico is now formulating its State Constitution, it has an excellent opportunity to embody in its fundamental law wise provisions concerning education.

The State reports great interest in its various institute meetings and a general public interest in approved modern school buildings.

The County Unit of school administration is being urged as well as liberal support for rural schools.

New York

During the year 1910, the State of New York obtained an entire revision of its educational laws. Some of the important changes were:

The Industrial Education Law was amended by providing for Agricultural courses in all of the High Schools of the State.

The office of School Commissioner in the counties was abolished and the office of District Superintendent substituted therefor. No town may be subdivided in organizing supervisory districts over which these superintendents preside, but towns with their surrounding territory may be united to form a supervisory district. The number of such districts varies from one to five in the different counties. The District Superintendents are elected by the two School Directors chosen for each town (township, borough, &c.) or in case of united towns by the combined action of all of the Directors represented

in the district. The term of these superintendents is five years and no one is ineligible because of sex. The State pays them \$1200 per year, but this sum may be increased by the districts supervised by them.

A Course of Study and Syllabus for the Elementary Schools was also adopted. This went into operation September 1, 1910, and systematizes the elementary work for the entire State.

North Carolina

This State has under consideration the establishment and maintenance of Agricultural or "Farm Life" High Schools to be supported by State and county aid combined. Such high schools and a general improvement of school houses and school grounds are among the most pressing educational needs of the State.

North Dakota

At the last meeting of the legislature a most comprehensive Child-labor Law was passed.

Provision was also made for increased supervision of rural schools, especially in the large counties of the State.

North Dakota has under consideration a new educational code, one of the prominent features of which is to be a provision for State aid to rural schools.

Progress has been made during the past year in the demand for better-trained and better-paid teachers; in the demand for more attention to the physical well-being of children and to the school environment in general; and also in the interest in Vocational Education.

The improvement of rural school conditions is one of the important problems of this State. Longer school terms with better material conditions for both teacher and pupils are also needed.

Ohio

The General Assembly of Ohio at its last session made, among other changes, the following additions and amendments to its school laws:

Every child now between the ages of eight and fourteen must attend school for the full school term, which is not to be less than twenty-eight weeks, unless excused by the Superintendent of Schools or the Clerk of the School District in which he resides. No child under sixteen may now be employed who has not first secured an approved age and schooling certificate.

The law in regard to the certification of teachers was amended so that, upon successfully passing a prescribed examination and securing the approval of the State Commissioner of Common Schools, the diploma of a normal school or teachers' college, or of a college or university, will entitle the person to teach for four years in the elementary schools of the State; and upon passing an examination and securing the same approval, these same diplomas entitle their holders to teach for four years in the high schools of the State. In the first case, however, the candidate must have had a full two-year academic and professional course which is superimposed upon graduation from a high school of the first grade or its equivalent. In the second there must have been a full four-year academic and professional course. The examinations are held in convenient places in the various counties and municipalities, and the papers are forwarded to the State Commissioner for examination and grading. After successful teaching, varying from twenty-four months to ten years, the certificates thus secured may be made permanent.

The Teachers' Retirement Law was amended so that voluntary retirement may occur at the end of thirty years and retirement for disability at the end of twenty years. No retirement pension is to exceed \$450 per year

and is to be based on the plan of paying at the rate of \$12.50 for each year of service.

Payment for the transportation of pupils to other schools or school districts was provided for. Centralization of schools was also authorized.

A course of study for the high schools of the State has been prepared.

Oklahoma

The most important school legislation adopted at the special session of the legislature, held in 1910, was that creating a County Excise Board. This Board is composed of the County Clerk, the County Treasurer, the County Judge, the County Superintendent and the County Attorney. It is their business to meet once a year "for the purpose of examining the estimates of expenses for the county and for each city, incorporated town, embracing a city of the first class, township and school district therein." This Excise Board considers the estimates of needs and the assessments and then fixes the tax levy for all purposes, school as well as others, for the following year. Thus the whole financial problem of the municipality or county comes before one responsible body—a body which is representative of all of the various interests of the people.

Some rearrangement of the State Board of Education is now under consideration. It has also been recommended that the number of members in Boards of Control in cities be reduced to five and that they shall be elected from the city at large and on a strictly non-political basis.

State Superintendent Cameron reports the consolidation of a number of rural schools into what are known as Union Schools.

Rural high schools are reported as being one of the greatest educational needs.

Pennsylvania

A recodification and general modification of the school laws of the State will be presented to the General Assembly in 1911. Some of the principal changes recommended by the Educational Commission having the matter in charge are:

Provision for a State Board of Education, Pennsylvania being one of the few remaining States having no such board.

Requiring that school buildings two stories or more high shall hereafter be of approved fire-proof construction. Also requiring that hereafter, in all but cities of the first class, all building plans shall be submitted to the State Board of Education for approval.

Courses of study are to be provided for each of the four kinds of school districts named in the Bill.

Providing for a higher standardization of teaching.

Making provision for joint schools of every grade.

Several wise provisions for the establishment of a State School Fund by giving the proposed State Board of Education charge of the various public lands of the State, amounting now to about one million acres. This fund is to be used for equalizing educational advantages in the State.

Several important changes are suggested which would apply only to cities of the first class in the State. These changes pertain to such matters as giving the Board of Education control of its own funds; providing for an increased revenue when needed; diminishing the size of these Boards; and arranging for their election by the people.

South Carolina

An Educational Commission to revise the school laws of the State was appointed at the last meeting of the Legislature. The electors in any school district were

also authorized to raise taxes for school purposes to the extent of 8 mills instead of the 4 mills heretofore prevailing.

Charleston is completing an Industrial School building for negroes. Successful manual training work is also reported from a number of places in the State. Agricultural High Schools are under consideration and there is an expressed need of improved supervision and a better examination and certification of teachers.

South Dakota

A complete revision of the entire school law is under contemplation in this State.

One of the lines of progress noted is: an awakening interest in Industrial Education, Manual Training, and the Domestic Arts.

This State also feels the need of a greater number of competent teachers.

Tennessee

Tennessee reports the passage of a General Educational Bill which appropriates one-fourth of the income of the State to educational purposes.

The establishment of three State Normal Schools is also reported.

Consideration is being given to a proposal to increase the proportion appropriated to education from one-fourth to one-third of the State revenue; to giving counties authority to issue bonds for school purposes; to having County Superintendents elected by County Boards of Education instead of by the county courts.

State Superintendent Jones reports an average increase in the length of the school term in the State of 10 days; that many additional County High Schools have been established; and that there has been a pleasing

increase in local taxation. He also reports a decided improvement in the character of school buildings erected.

The needs reported are for trained teachers, more money for schools, and high schools for every county.

Texas

There has been no recent school legislation, but some of the matters under consideration are:

The maintenance of State institutions of higher learning by State tax.

Providing by law for the organization and maintenance of High Schools in rural districts.

The extension of expert supervision to the public schools of all the counties of the State.

A revision of the law in regard to the Certification of Teachers so that it will be placed in the hands of the State educational authorities.

Matters of progress reported by Superintendent, F. M. Bralley, are:

An average lengthening of the school term by one month.

A gratifying increase in the salaries of teachers.

An exceptionally large sum of money expended for new school buildings.

Also an improvement in the work as well as the popularity of Manual Training and Domestic Science.

Utah

The State of Utah recently passed a law requiring all school-house plans to be submitted to a State Commission composed of the State Superintendent of Schools, the State Architect, and the Secretary of the State Board of Health. This plan is reported as having already brought about great benefits in building improvements.

Matters under consideration apply to the appoint-

ment of County Superintendents by the State Board of Education, this Board also to fix their salaries; and to making provision for State Medical Examination of all schools.

An increased interest in Industrial Education is reported. Some Trade Schools have been established, and Sub-High Schools, where pupils of the Sixth and Seventh grades may begin the study of at least one foreign language, have been established in several places.

Vermont

Vermont reports no recent school legislation.

Some of the educational matters that are attracting public interest are:

The need of a State Agricultural School.

Teachers' Training Courses in High Schools and Academies.

A change of the Fiscal School Year from April 1 to July 1.

An awakening interest in Industrial Education is reported. The introduction in a number of places of Domestic Economy and Manual Training Courses is also reported.

The State reports a need of better facilities for training teachers and better opportunities for agricultural education.

Virginia

At the last meeting of the General Assembly in Virginia, the law in regard to Teachers' Retirement was amended so as to make the term of service before voluntary retirement can be secured thirty years instead of twenty-five years as heretofore, and the age limit for such retirement fifty-eight instead of fifty. Retirement for disability must meet with the approval of the State Board of Health, as well as of the State Board of Educa-

tion. The quarterly pension is not to exceed \$100 except in case of persons whose salaries exceed \$1000, when the quarterly payments may be \$125.

Division Superintendents are now entitled to a salary of at least \$2000 from the State funds.

A law was passed permitting the establishment, equipment, and maintenance of agricultural high schools—one in each Congressional District of the State. These high schools may be used as centers for directing demonstration farm work throughout the district. The Board of Supervisors in any county of the State is authorized to appropriate \$500 each year for the purpose of promoting agriculture.

During the past year State Superintendent Shawkey reports an unusual growth in School Libraries and a State-wide campaign for better attendance, for a "Clean-up and Beautify Day," and for the appointment of Rural School Supervisors and of a High School Supervisor, also a campaign for a reorganization of school administration under a small Board of Regents and one Board of Control.

Bluefield is reported as erecting one of the best High School buildings in the South.

Washington

There has been no recent school legislation in this State.

An improvement in the rural schools is regarded as one of the greatest of its present school needs.

West Virginia

Favorable legislation will be asked for at the meeting of the Legislature in 1911 upon such subjects as:

Increasing the revenues for school purposes by placing a production-tax upon natural gas; an increase in the

minimum salaries of teachers; an increase in the salaries of County Superintendents and State aid for High Schools.

Wisconsin

Hereafter, in this State, all applicants for Teachers' Certificates must have attended a professional school for teachers for at least six weeks.

Any contiguous territory of at least 36 square miles can hereafter form a high school district having the same privileges as town high school districts.

City Superintendents may hereafter be elected for three years.

The State High School Inspector, the State Rural School Inspector, and the two Graded School Inspectors, are now regarded also as inspectors of school buildings, and are empowered to condemn buildings which they consider unfit for use, subject to appeal to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

No child between the ages of 14 and 16 can now be employed in a gainful occupation without a written permit from the principal of the school he attends, or from the clerk of the board of education of his school district.

Legislation that is under consideration in Wisconsin pertains to: Teachers' Pensions; County Boards of Education; and the admittance of certain graduates of all free high schools to the State University without examination.

Superintendent Charles P. Cary reports marked progress in: The introduction of Agricultural Courses in High Schools; a more satisfactory arrangement of the school term; and in abolishing the common drinking cup in schools.

The people of the rural schools as in other States need to be aroused to a deeper interest in their schools. There has been complaint during the past year about the undue domination of college influences in the State.

Wyoming

Two matters that are under consideration for action at the next legislature, which meets in January, 1911, are: Increased compensation for county superintendents and a permanent and salaried Secretary for the State Board of Educational Examiners.

The new law for the Certification of Teachers is proving of great benefit in the raising of the standard of teaching.

There is a growing demand for a minimum salary law and for State aid for the schools.

CHAPTER XV

MISCELLANEOUS

Additional Gifts

PRESIDENT HADLEY announced to the alumni association of Yale that the year ending June, 1910, was a banner year in gifts to the University, as they had amounted to \$2,232,000, without the \$150,000 contributed by the alumni association itself.

David Rankin, Jr., of St. Louis, gave \$3,000,000 to the Mechanical Trades School of that city, which bears his name. The purpose of this additional gift is to enlarge and extend the work of the school.

Goldwin Smith, who died during the past year in Toronto, Canada, left the bulk of his estate to Cornell University, where for so many years he was formerly a professor of history.

Trinity College at Durham, N. C., received \$100,000 as a gift from Benjamin N. Duke.

Andrew Carnegie gave \$1,500,000 for the extension of the buildings and equipment of the Carnegie Institute at Pittsburg and an additional sum of \$2,000,000 in 5 per cent. gold interest bearing bonds for the maintenance of the enlarged school.

Isaac N. Wyman of Salem, Mass., willed his entire estate, which is variously estimated at from one to three millions of dollars, to Princeton University.

A gift of \$500,000 from Edward Tuck to Dartmouth College, where he was graduated in 1862, was announced by President Nicholls early in December. The money is to be used in enlarging and strengthening the teaching

force of the College. This makes a total of over a million dollars that Mr. Tuck has given to this institution.

FOR UNIVERSAL PEACE.—On December fourteenth, Mr. Andrew Carnegie announced that he had placed \$10,000,000 worth of the first mortgage bonds of the United States Steel Corporation, bearing five per cent. interest, in charge of twenty-seven trustees; the interest of which fund is to be devoted primarily to the establishment of universal peace by the “abolition of international war between so-called civilized nations,” and the removal of such friction as may impair the progress and happiness of man.

When wars shall have ceased the fund is to be applied to the banishment of “the next most degrading remaining evil or evils” then found to be harassing mankind. Senator Elihu Root of New York was elected permanent chairman of the Board of Trustees.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.—John D. Rockefeller has completed his purposes in regard to the University of Chicago by a final gift of \$10,000,000. This makes a total of approximately \$35,000,000 that he has donated to this institution.

In announcing the gift Mr. Rockefeller withdrew his personal representatives from the Board of Trustees of the institution, because of an “early and permanent conviction that this great institution is the property of the people.” With their efforts for its upbuilding he expresses a desire simply to coöperate so that the people may feel free to assist by counsel and gifts to the further enlargement of its usefulness.

Mr. Rockefeller further announces with the gift: “The sum I now give is intended to make provision, with such gifts as may reasonably be expected from others, for such added buildings, equipment and endowment as the department thus far established will need.”

Events of Importance to Education

POSTAL SAVINGS BANK BILL.—A bill for the establishment of these banks has finally become a law. The Postal Banks are to be under the control of a board of trustees composed of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Postmaster General, and the Attorney General. This board is authorized to designate the post offices which are to become postal savings depositories. Accounts may be opened by any one ten years old and upwards; and a married woman may in her own name open an account which is free from the control of her husband.

The first deposit must amount to at least one dollar. Interest at the rate of 2 per cent. per annum is allowed. Depositors have the privilege, under certain conditions, of exchanging their deposits in amounts of \$20 or its multiples to \$100, or in multiples of \$100, for United States bonds which shall bear interest at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in gold payable semi-annually.

These postal banks are expected to promote thrift, especially among foreigners, who distrust banking institutions, and in rural communities not having ready access to savings-banks. However, the postal bank idea is not new, it having been in operation in England since 1862. Such banking systems have now been established in 36 countries and dependencies, even in Egypt, and the Gold Coast, and since 1906 in the Philippines.

OLD AGE PENSIONS.—The French Parliament has passed an old age pension law which insures nearly eighteen million French citizens against the fears of poverty or dependence in their old age. Out of these eighteen millions, six millions are farmers or small proprietors for whom an optional form of insurance has been provided. However, for the remaining twelve millions, composed of workingmen, clerks, servants and farm laborers whose yearly earnings are less than three

thousand francs (\$600), compulsory old-age insurance is thus established.

Like in Germany and Belgium, where securing the benefits of the pension is dependent upon small annual contributions to the fund, thrifty France follows the contributory form of pension. A non-contributory form of old-age pension prevails in Great Britain and Denmark.

IRRIGATION.—The Roosevelt Dam, the great Salt River project which supplies 375 square miles in the center of which is located Phoenix, the capital of Arizona, was completed during the year. This was one of the valuable aids to agriculture rendered by the National Government.

SHAKESPEARE.—An interesting discovery was made by Professor Wallace of the University of Nebraska after carefully searching through a mass of old records. He found that Shakespeare was for a number of years a lodger in an old house located at the corner of Silver and Monkwell Streets, London, and that here the immortal bard undoubtedly wrote most of his greatest plays. It adds no little to the appreciation of Professor Wallace's patient work to know that his wife ably assisted him in his researches.

SOUTH AMERICA.—One of the most important engineering feats of recent times was completed during the year 1910. This was the opening of the great railway tunnel through the Andes Mountains, which now completes the railway connection between the prosperous and progressive republics, Argentina and Chili. This tunnel saves the two weeks' trip through the stormy water of Cape Horn that was formerly necessary in passing from Buenos Ayres to Santiago. It also demonstrates the genuine constructive energy of these portions of South America; for the tunnel was bored through one of the mightiest mountains of the world and at a height of almost two miles above sea level.

AGRICULTURE.—Columbia University has established a course in "Economic Agriculture." The instruction will be of the most practical nature and many of the lecturers will be men of scientific attainments, who have also made a success of farming on a large scale.

The course embraces sixteen lectures, the introductory one being given on Nov. 29. They will be given on successive Tuesdays.

THE NATIONAL "LAND SHOW."—On the nineteenth of November, 1910, there was opened in Chicago the second annual "Land Show," in which there were displays of farm products and a brave setting forth of farming opportunities from all parts of the country. There were valuable displays representing various Departments of the Government at Washington; but the main feature of the Land Show was the exhibits of grains, fibers, fruits, vegetables, nuts and other land products arranged in a manner which set forth very forcibly the industries and advantages of different sections of the country.

Aside from the general purpose of forwarding interest in our natural resources, various States took advantage of the exhibition to make a bid for settlers as well as for further development. The exhibition of apples from Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Colorado, and Montana was one of the features of the Show. But the South also presented an exceptionally attractive display and in a way which should very materially assist in drawing settlers.

As the value of the agricultural products of the country for the past year was estimated to be \$8,926,000,000, the importance of promoting intelligent interest in the various resources of our soil cannot be overestimated.

FOREST FIRES.—In Secretary Wilson's report, sent to Congress with the Annual Message of the President in December, 1910, was one item which should arouse

grave concern in the United States. This was a statement from Chief Forester Graves to the effect that forest fires had during that single year burned over an area of more than three million acres and destroyed over six billion feet of lumber. They involved a direct money loss estimated at twenty-five million dollars and killed seventy-six Forest Service employees besides probably a number of others whose absence cannot otherwise be accounted for.

To prevent these disastrous conflagrations, Mr. Graves recommends the pushing forward as rapidly as possible of the Forest Service work of constructing roads and trails through the great forest regions and the establishment of fire lines for the purpose of restricting fires, when they do occur, within a limited area. He also urges the establishment of lookout stations located on high points and connected with each other and the central stations by telephone.

THE CITY BEAUTIFUL.—Kansas City, Missouri, is having an interesting experience which should be very suggestive to all places that have become alive to the value of beautiful, wide boulevards as an asset of municipal progress.

Some fifteen years ago the first of its boulevards was opened and the cost of the condemnation of property, the construction of the roadway, the central parkway, and the side-walks was assessed against the property abutting on the new boulevard. Thus an attractive addition was made to the city's highways without any expense to the city itself.

While there was bitter complaint made at first against the plan, real estate men quickly realized that frontage on a boulevard soon doubled the market value of property—the benefit of increased values even extending to lots on streets two or three blocks distant. And it was not long before others were constructed under the same plan.

So popular have these beautified streets in Kansas City become that property owners are now petitioning for more and more of them, offering to build them at their own expense, and, when finished, to deliver them free of cost to the city. All the work in their construction is under the supervision of what is known as the Park Commission, which is composed of men who not only have done much to elevate the public taste, but who have also shown the people that, after all, beauty is a thing which has commercial value.

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